

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

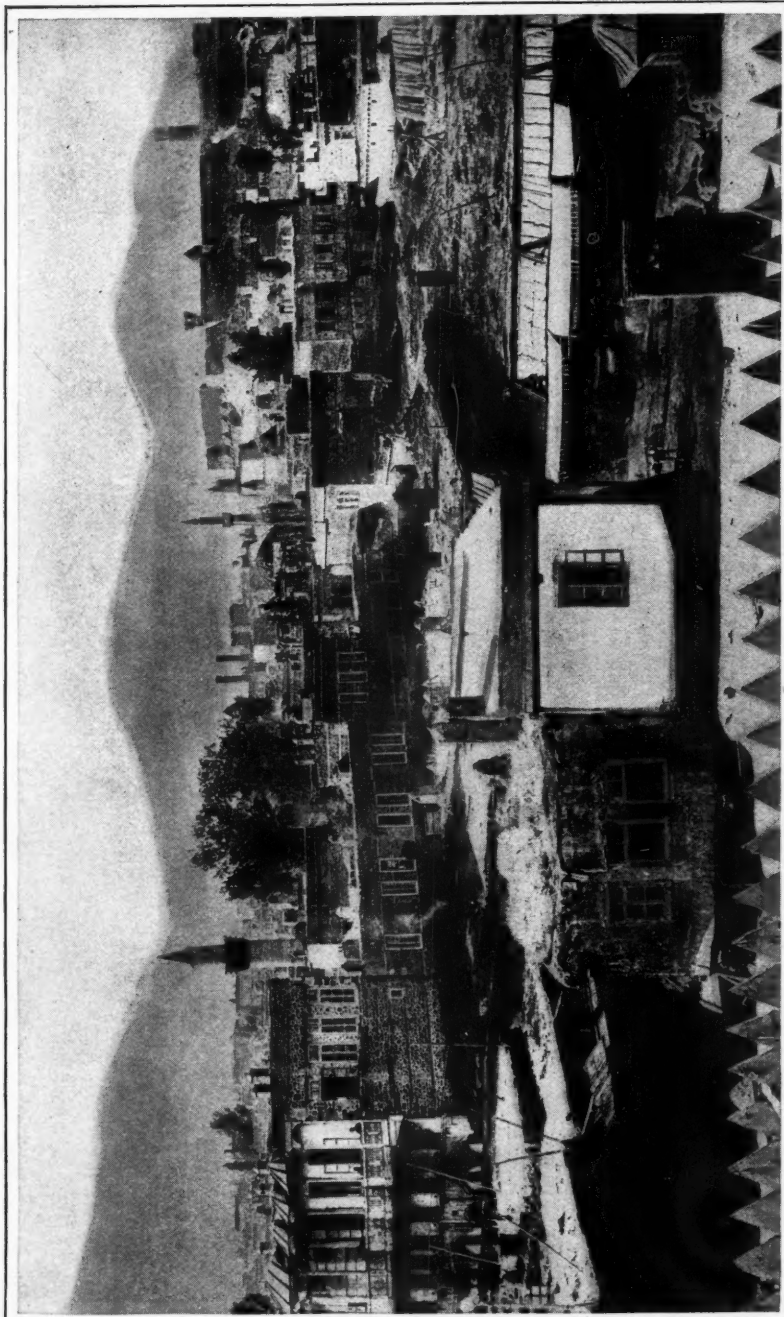
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# THE CITY OF ERZERUM, IN ASIA MINOR, CAPTURED ON FEBRUARY 16 BY THE RUSSIAN TROOPS UNDER GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS

(This Turkish stronghold is still known by the Armenians as Garin. It is a place of great antiquity. For almost exactly four hundred years the town has been in the hands of the Turks, but in 1829 the Russians took it from them and held it for a few months. In the Russo-Turkish war of 1877 the Russians made an unsuccessful attack on Erzerum and occupied the town during the armistice in 1878, retaining it until the Treaty of Berlin. Erzerum is over 6000 feet above the sea, and is situated on the high hills in the vicinity of the city. It is situated at the base of a plateau thirty miles long and about twelve miles wide, bordered by mountains. The position is one of great strength, and would be of enormous advantage to the Allies in case of a British advance from the south. Erzerum has a population of about 43,000, including 10,000 Armenians).



# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*Complex  
Machinery*

One of the worst things about a complicated mechanism of government is the difficulty the ordinary citizen encounters in keeping alive to the main facts of politics and their real significance. Everyone knows that we are to elect a President this year; and many people realize to some extent the enormous influence that fact has upon the way in which every subject is approached, and every question dealt with, by those who hold their present lease of power and are determined, if possible, to obtain a further lease of four years. But while there is some inkling of the influence that an approaching Presidential election has upon the course of affairs, there is probably not one American citizen in a hundred who had a keen perception last month of the real bearings of an approaching election of four hundred and thirty-five members of the House of Representatives at Washington upon the policies and the fortunes of the country. In countries like England, Canada, or France, which have a more simple and responsive form of government, an approaching parliamentary election would be forced upon the aroused intelligence of almost every man, woman, and child.

*"Politics"  
Postponed in  
Canada*

A member of the Canadian cabinet, in an interview last month, declared that the Dominion has the most truly popular government in the world. He meant to be understood as holding that the Canadian system is more responsive to public opinion than ours in the United States, and that the citizens are therefore more conscious of their relation to it. So momentous are the tasks and burdens imposed by the great war that the Canadians have decided to dispense as far as possible with "politics." Their fundamental law requires the election of a new Dominion Par-

liament at the end of five years, unless the failure of a party in power to hold the continued support of a parliamentary majority should have led to a dissolution and a new election previous to the end of the five-year maximum term. Under the five-year law, Canada would be obliged to hold a general election this year; but the law will be suspended and the existing situation will continue indefinitely. The policies and measures of the cabinet headed by Sir Robert L. Borden have the cordial support of the opposition party headed by the veteran statesman, Sir Wilfrid Laurier. Only a few years ago Canada was engaged in desperate political strife over questions of naval aid to the Empire, railroad subsidies, tariffs, and national policies in general. Now these strifes are for the most part laid aside. There is an indefinite period of Political Truce.

*Benefits of a  
Great Truce*

Members of Parliament are certain to hold their seats till present emergencies are lived through. They do not have to spend three-quarters of their time watching their own local political fences, whether in the eastern or the far-western Provinces. They are not compelled to bother over what are for the most part exaggerated, if not wholly artificial, distinctions between parties. They are free to give their best thought and effort to the welfare of Canada as a whole. They are seeking points of agreement rather than of difference. They are trying the experiment of government by coöperation, as against that of government by partisanship, division, and misrepresentation. So much of benefit will have come to Canada through this period of genuinely constructive national effort that it will go far towards recompensing the losses and sacrifices of the war. If peace comes without too great delay, the

energizing of Canada by reason of the efforts that have been put forth in this period will yield notable results. Not only will Canada be the second nation of the Western Hemisphere—she holds that place already—but one of the most influential communities of the reorganized world that is to be.

*National  
Military  
Service*

Canada, as an immediate consequence of this war, will have a citizenship fully organized for national service. Even if the war should end within the next year, Canada would have almost or quite half a million soldiers, 60 per cent. of them being well trained and disciplined. She could not fail to benefit by the intense discussion that has taken place in England, the United States, and elsewhere, regarding "preparedness." The best-informed Canadians have said privately, with even more emphasis than in public utterances, that Canada has not the slightest intention of relapsing to a defenseless condition. On the other hand, the Canadians are neither so unintelligent nor so extravagant as to think of creating a professional army of the old-fashioned kind, on a large scale. Their half-million soldiers at the end of the war will for the most part constitute a reserve body. They will be eager to go back to civilian life, and Canada will be just as free from "militarism" as if no man in the country had ever learned to shoot a rifle. But Canada will almost certainly adopt a plan, more or less similar to that of Australia, by means of which boys and young men may obtain a sufficient amount of training to make it easy for them to render actual military service if another time of need should ever come. The experience of our nearest neighbor in this regard should have a salutary influence upon the course of affairs south of the international boundary line.

*No Election  
in England*

In England, towards the end of January, legislation was adopted further prolonging the life of the present Parliament, which had completed a full five years of existence on February 1. There are differences of opinion in England, undoubtedly. But differences are minimized and the spirit of national unity is much more potent than that of faction or party or class strife. There may, indeed, be dangers and disadvantages in having a ruling class that is too permanent, and that dwells unduly in the atmosphere of imperial policies, of world control through sea power, and of the ex-

ercise of authority over many subject territories and races. But there are also great advantages in having a body of men trained in statecraft, diplomacy, and administration, who render public service with assured continuity. When, furthermore, in a country like England in serious times the party divisions are lost sight of, and the best-trained men of the different political sects and schools abandon the game of trying to trip one another up, and merge their wisdom and patriotism for the welfare of their country, great things are sure to happen that will redeem many of the mistakes and wrongs of the past, as noted in Chesterton's latest book.

*"Conscription"  
—The New  
Patriotism*

One of the best things that has already happened in England bears the ugly and hated name of "conscription." A year ago it seemed impossible to bring the ease-loving and selfish citizens of England to this point of unselfishness and devotion. But the thing has been accepted; and what was so ugly under the name of "conscription" becomes fine and worthy in its real aspect of *national service without shirking*. The thing that falls into



COMPULSORY SERVICE IN ENGLAND: A DUTCH VIEW

KHAKI JOHN BULL (shaking his fist at the bust of the Kaiser): "This change of costume is something I have to thank you for, William."

From *De Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam, Holland)

disfavor is the medieval conception of the hired or professional standing army, that had kept its hold in England and the United States. "Universal service" is merely another term for "true democracy," that recognizes obligation and privileges as belonging equally to every citizen. This conception is in perfect accord with any sensible view of peace, international arbitration, and world-union for the avoidance of war. Lamentable as is much of the history of all the great European powers—a history that has, at least remotely, contributed to the causes of the present frightful struggle—there are many signs of a clearing away of surviving wrongs and evils as a result of the higher value that real manhood is assuming in every European country. The bad kind of diplomacy, that has engendered national rivalries and the appeal to force, will to a great extent be done away with. Social wealth will be more strictly applied to the common welfare. Great Britain and Ireland will be a better and more united kingdom in the years to come than ever in the past. A finer social and political harmony within the nation, instead of being a menace to other countries, must have just the opposite effect. Germany would not have precipitated the present war if there had been a higher development of democracy, and a better popular control of the policies touching the Empire's larger relationships. England,

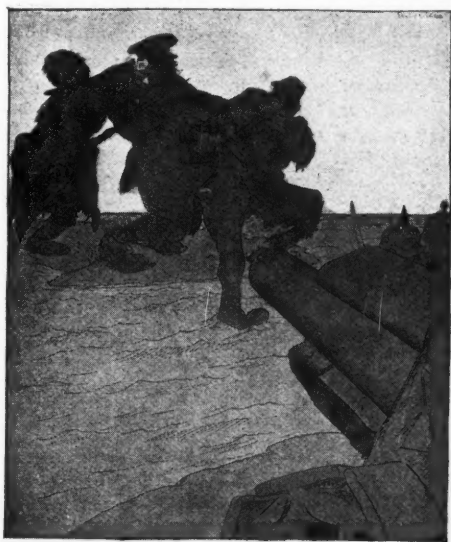


Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

GEN. SIR WILLIAM ROBERTSON

(Recently appointed Chief of Staff of the British Imperial forces, and who takes over from Lord Kitchener the direct control of England's new levies of men by the million)

on the other hand, would have been a stronger influence for peace if the harmony and national spirit that events have now begun to produce could have been secured in domestic affairs a few years earlier. "Conscription," in the sense of an equally distributed responsibility for the general welfare, will make for harmony at home and for peace abroad.



CONSCRIPTION FOR ENGLAND: A GERMAN VIEW

JOHN BULL says: "My motto was 'Let me live and let others die,' but now the war comes home to us all."

From *Jugend* © (Munich)

#### Our Short-term Legislators

But let us return to some review of our own current problems of politics and government. As we have remarked, the 435 members of the House, representing as many distinct Congressional districts from Maine to Arizona and from Florida to Puget Sound, are for themselves keenly aware of party politics and approaching elections. It was only three months ago (the first Monday in December) that this new Sixty-fourth Congress assembled at Washington, took oath of office, and entered upon its first session. Yet even now its members are facing the ordeal of another election. Its committees have been dealing with important questions, but the House as a body has completed very little of the work

deemed necessary for the present session. Through no fault of their own, these harassed law-givers are compelled by our system of government to give a great share of their attention to detailed matters relating to their own districts, and especially to the preparation for the coming contests at the polls. Some members are reasonably sure of succeeding themselves. But many others are not even sure of obtaining renomination at the hands of their own fellow-partisans, while others who can count upon renomination are by no means sure of election. The term is far too short for comfort or efficiency. It is not easy to over-estimate the unfortunate effect of these conditions upon the treatment of public questions at Washington.

*Our  
District  
System*

Indeed, it would be difficult to exaggerate that effect. When from time to time we develop in Congress strong men of national view and capacity for leadership, it is in spite of our system rather than by virtue of it. The rigidity of our plan of strict territorial representation is scarcely known in any other country. Some unlucky turn of the political wheel in a particular district relegates to private life a man who is beginning to render conspicuous service to the nation. In other countries, the leaders are kept in public life. If Mr. Lloyd George were not reelected by his particular constituency in Wales, he could in due time have his choice of any one of a hundred constituencies in England, Scotland, or Ireland. Three-fourths of the House of Commons might be made up of Liberals and Radicals, but there would be no trouble in securing a seat for such Conservatives as Mr. Balfour or Mr. Bonar Law. We are not saying these things to find fault with our system, or to stigmatize it as unworkable. We are merely calling attention to some of its characteristics.

*Some  
Contrasts*

In the course of a given decade, we have five Congressional elections that renew the entire House. It might be safe to estimate that on the average, for a series of five elections, one-third of the members are entirely new, another third are of comparatively short service, and the remaining third of reasonably stable or continuous membership. In the past fifty years we have had just twice as many general elections as the British,—that is to say, Parliaments have averaged about four years each. Recent parliamentary elections have carried some definite action of Parlia-

ment (such as the Lloyd George budget, and the bill reducing the authority of the House of Lords) direct to the verdict of the people. Such appeals to the country have not broken in upon the course of Parliamentary business, but have been with direct reference to the completion of such business. The English system concentrates attention upon large questions, and keeps in public life almost every man who develops especial fitness and talent. Our system does not work in that way. A great number of promising men enter the House of Representatives, and disappear just as they are ready for usefulness. Thus we have had approximately 1000 different individuals serving in the House within the past ten years. There were 163 entirely new members of the Congress that was elected in 1912. There are 120 new members in the present Congress, elected in November, 1914.

*What  
Can Be  
Done*

It is true that this system prevents the Government at Washington from getting too far away from a nation-wide sentiment. It keeps the Government from being unduly influenced by the atmosphere of New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and the powerful agencies that control the newspaper press of the Atlantic seaboard. Texas, North Carolina, California, Minnesota, Nebraska, have to-day just as much influence upon the debating and voting of Congress as they would have if the capital were located at Kansas City or at Denver. It is not, then, that the system should be discarded, so much as that it should be made a little more elastic, and much more highly nationalized in its spirit. Without any change at all in the Constitution or the laws, it would be possible for States and districts to find their best men; to dedicate them to the country; to liberate them from bondage to the petty demands of local constituents for postmasterships, post-office buildings, garden seeds, and other favors; and to enter into the more noble and generous kind of conspiracy that would seek to keep the local favorite in office term after term and develop him into a statesman of national usefulness and repute.

*"Pork-barrel"  
Localism*

This was more likely to be done in the period of Henry Clay and Daniel Webster than it is to-day. The "pork barrel," so-called, is one of the worst evils with which we have now to contend. It will be hard, however, to get rid of it until the citizens of a given district are ready to applaud the member of Congress



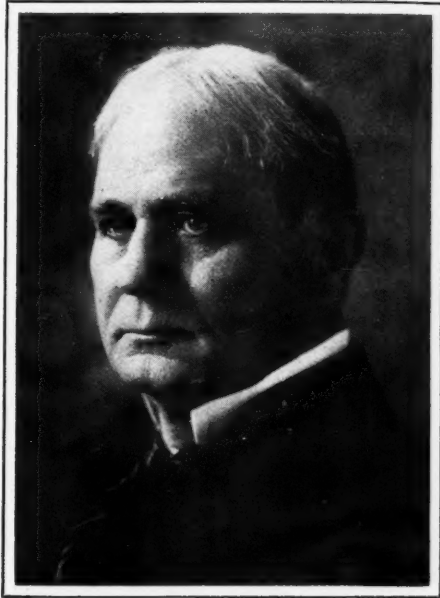
who comes back home and assures them that he has not committed a single impropriety for the supposed benefit of any constituent. Hail to the Congressman who refuses to play tricks upon the country for the benefit of his neighbors or to strengthen his local political fences! The "pork-barrel" principle turns Congress into a band of men eager to loot the very treasury that it is their sworn duty to protect. There is a pending River and Harbor bill of nearly \$50,000,000, which is by no means as bad as river-and-harbor bills were likely to be twenty years ago. But the present bill is extravagant, and it is made upon the plan of favoring as many districts as possible for the sake of getting the necessary items accepted by Congress. Necessary work in New York harbor can be performed only by granting money for needless work in many other places. We are in great need of several important buildings at Washington for the proper accommodation of public services. Yet the "pork-barrel" system requires the distribution of unnecessary post-offices and other public buildings throughout the country in order to get the needful things done.

*Mr. Garrison and the System.* "Pork-barrel politics" caused the loss to the country of an exceptionally valuable cabinet officer only last month. Mr. Garrison, as Secretary



SHOULDER TO SHOULDER  
(Mr. Mann, the Republican leader, and Mr. Clark, the Democratic Speaker, are ready to support any good non-partisan plan of national defense)

From the *Evening Sun* (Baltimore)

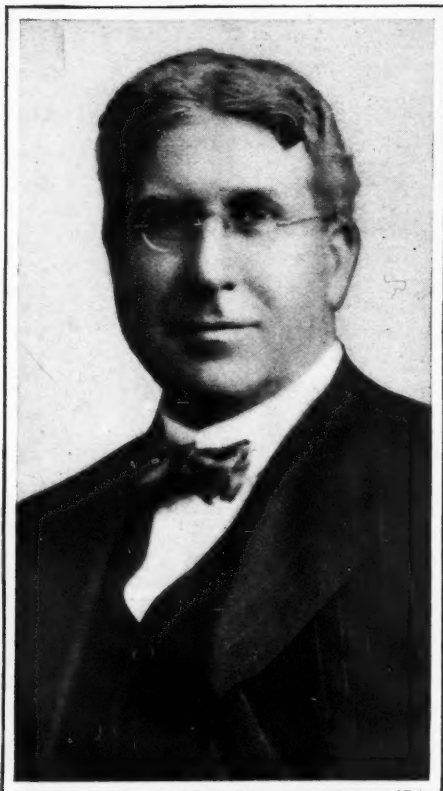


©Edmonston, Washington

HON. CHAMP CLARK, SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE

(Who took the floor last month in support of a program of immediate preparation for defense)

of War, had been asked by the President early last year to consult widely and prepare a plan for improving the military defenses of the country. Mr. Garrison had accordingly concentrated his efforts upon that problem, and had produced a plan which was last fall accepted by his chief and made the official Administration program. President Wilson had devoted his annual message to Congress (delivered December 7) to the advocacy of the army and navy plans that had been worked out by the civil and professional heads of the two services. Mr. Garrison's plan had included first a considerable enlargement of the regular army, and second a reserve body of about 400,000 men to be known as the Continental army and to be made up for the most part of men taking a brief intensive training to the extent of about 133,000 each year. The only definite alternative for Mr. Garrison's plans,—or, rather, for the Administration's program, for it had been fully accepted as such,—was the plan of increasing somewhat the State troops known as the National Guard and paying these local bodies a great deal of money out of the national treasury. The plans for the Continental army were laid before the military committee of the House, but very coldly received. The National Guard scheme, on



© Harris &amp; Ewing, Washington, D. C.

HON. LINDLEY M. GARRISON

(Who resigned last month as Secretary of War)

the other hand, was found to have a surprising number of friends and supporters, with almost nothing that could be said in its favor by anybody who really cared for an efficient military system.

*The Other  
Plan Had  
Friends*

The explanation is not far to seek. The National Guard is a very incoherent body, considered in the military sense. But for lobby purposes it is admirably efficient. Nobody seems to know exactly its present size, but it has perhaps a net effective membership of 100,000. It consists of forty-eight little armies, under the separate control of the forty-eight States. It has certain limited aspects of uniformity, growing out of laws of Congress which have made it certain grants of supplies conditioned upon the meeting of certain requirements. Its personnel is of widely varying character, much of it being of excellent native quality; while its military character ranges all the way from good in some States and regiments

to inferior in others. Many of the men in the National Guard deserve great credit, and we are very far from disparaging them. They did not create the system, and are not responsible for its defects. It belongs to the States, and there is no way by which it can be made to belong to the nation. What, then, has suddenly given the National Guard so favorable a place in the council chambers at Washington? The answer would seem quite simple. These local organizations with one accord wish to be paid out of national funds.

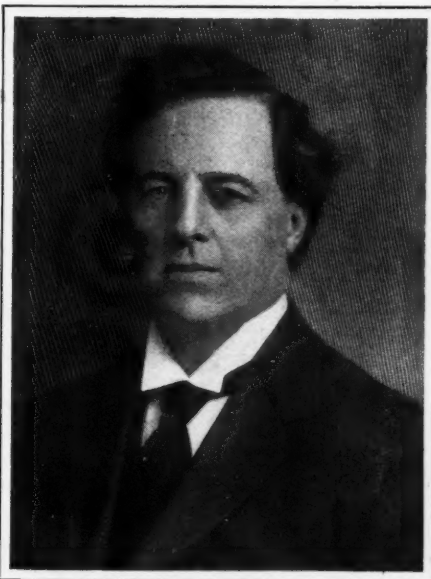
*Millions in  
Salaries  
Were at Stake*

The pending project gives salaries to all the National Guard officers and fixes a scale of pay for all the privates. Every Congressman has to reckon with a concrete pressure from the officers and men of his own district. There is no reason to suppose that the country would be much better off as regards defense than it is to-day, even if a good many millions were voted out of the national treasury to be distributed in salaries and in pay to the State troops. If, indeed, in any time of emergency these troops should actually come to the service of the country, they would naturally receive pay. But meanwhile it is the business of the States to provide for their own State troops, just as it is the business of the cities to provide for their own police forces. It happens, however, that every Congressman has a greater or smaller number of National Guardsmen in his district, and that many of these men are active and influential. The opportunity for a National Guard "pork barrel" is, therefore, tempting to an unusual degree. The Guardsmen who favor the national appropriation are honest and sincere, and we have no fault at all to find with them. But they do not see the problem of national defense from the country's standpoint. So Mr. Garrison's United States army found no friends except the discerning and disinterested advocates of America's honor and safety. There was no "pork" in it for anybody.

*The Country  
Not Yet  
Convinced*

Even in the midst of a life and death war, it took England a whole year to work sentiment up to the need of military training and organization. It is not strange, then, that the people of the United States are not yet aroused, although the awakening has begun and is going forward. The European war was a full year old before President Wilson was so much as converted to the idea that the navy should be made considerably more effective. If the commander of the forces is

satisfied, who else should be worried? The whole country is now awake as to the navy. The Middle West, and even the South, are ready to have the navy made second only in power to that of Great Britain. If the President had told the West that he wanted 200 submarines and 1000 postal-military aeroplanes, he would have found himself supported. But the Middle West and the South do not want a big army; and they have not been made to understand that the right kind of military preparation is directly opposite to the old-fashioned notion of a great standing army. Salaries to the National Guard's officers is a move in exactly the wrong direction. Every boy in the United States could be made into a fairly efficient defender of his country, without any appreciable increase in the Government's military expenditure over the average of the last ten years. The strong navy we need will cost a great deal of money; and the country is willing to pay the bills without flinching. But the kind of military training this country wants, or should have, can be made a valuable by-product of our universal system of education, and need cost practically nothing beyond what we already pay. What it is proposed to pay to 100,000 State troops would train fully 1,000,000 men for the finest sort of a national reserve army.



PRESIDENT EDMUND J. JAMES, OF ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY

(Dr. James, who is one of our foremost educational authorities and organizers, shows how the country may secure an unlimited supply of reserve officers by using institutions like his own)

*Squandered Opportunities*

The federal Government is already spending several millions every year upon more than fifty great institutions, located in every State, which are obliged by law to give military training. President James, of the University of Illinois, appeared before the Military Committee of Congress last month and showed how vast an opportunity for the training of officers was being thrown away through sheer failure to utilize the most obvious of opportunities. As we have said more than once in these pages, no other country possesses any such equipment as we already have for the training of officers. Our present military establishment is topsy-turvy. Dr. James stated that on one occasion the only officer the War Department would send to train and drill his thousands of young men at Urbana-Champaign, Ill., was a single Second Lieutenant. Yet there were scores, perhaps hundreds, of army officers in and about Washington, every one of whom ought to have been busy from morning till night teaching and training bright young men in such institutions as these great "Land-Grant" colleges. So far as national defense is concerned, we would be better off to put the single Second Lieutenant in sole charge of one of our typical army posts, and assign all his superiors and colleagues to tasks of training.



LOOKS LIKE A SPRING CLEANING

UNCLE SAM: "I'm sorry to disturb your pets, but I'm going to get a pair of real dogs for those kennels."  
From the Times (New York)

*Armies  
as  
Schools*

The German army in peacetime is a vast school, and little else. The professional organization each year receives for training a great number of twenty-year-old recruits. Educated young men in Germany are allowed to enter the army as volunteers at their own expense and serve only one year, after which they become officers in the reserve. Our own regular army should be wholly engaged in training young citizens. As Dr. James well shows, our State universities are capable of giving us an unlimited supply of men of sufficient training to become officers in a national reserve or Continental army of the Garrison type. We should need a small standing army; but we should make the advantages of membership in it more evident, and keep the terms of enlistment short. We have tens of thousands of engineers, trained in our technical colleges and State universities. A very little additional military training would render them the most effective body of men for national defense to be found in the world, and they are ready, as patriots, to be enrolled for the mere asking. We are quoting elsewhere (see page 351) a summary of the views expressed by Dr. James before the committee at Washington.

*The  
President's  
Propaganda*

President Wilson, having made national defense the subject of his message to Congress in December, soon discovered a great lack of enthusiasm on the part of the Democrats who were expected to follow his leadership. Mr. Claude Kitchin, official floor leader in the House, proved to be a champion of anti-preparedness, who could not be converted to the President's view. Mr. Hay, of Virginia, chairman of the Military Committee, with nearly all the other members of that committee, was entirely out of sympathy with the Administration's plans and programs. Accordingly, President Wilson went on a swift speech-making tour in the West to ring the alarm-bells and arouse people to the dangers that confront us. He was away from Washington a week, and made twenty speeches, ten of them of a formal nature. His principal stops were at Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Chicago, Milwaukee, Des Moines, Kansas City, and St. Louis. He returned to Washington on February 4. The newspapers agreed that the President was treated with great respect, that large crowds heard him, and that the trip was a personal success. But it seems not to have been a success in the sense of bringing sup-

port to the declared program. The Middle West appreciated Mr. Wilson's eloquence, but did not show the smallest signs of alarm when Mr. Wilson declared that the world was aflame and that our own homes were in danger.

*"He Went, He  
Saw," and He  
Yielded!*

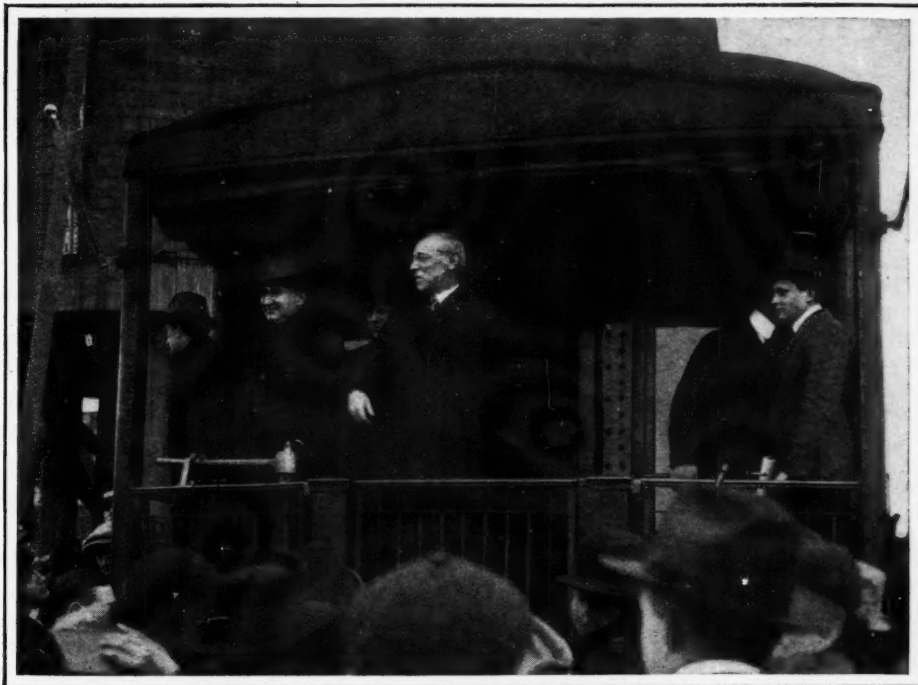
When Mr. Wilson returned he conferred freely with members of Congress, and allowed it to be known that he was no longer wedded to any particular plan, and was wholly open to conviction. Mr. Wilson is commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States. He had presented to the country a specific plan of defense, and was expected to work for it to the utmost. He had gone on the stump, supposedly, to advocate it. There was no way by which this new Congress could well have evolved a national-defense program of its own out of its varied local proclivities. The only chance for an army plan of any value lay in the insistence upon the main outlines of an administration project. On January 12 and two days later, before Mr. Wilson made his speaking tour, Secretary Garrison had written him urgent letters. On February 9, five days after Mr. Wilson's return from his speaking tour on behalf of preparation for national defense, Secretary Garrison wrote him a letter which has so much importance for the student of current affairs that we quote it in full:

MY DEAR MR. PRESIDENT: Two matters within



MORE TROUBLE IN THE ADMINISTRATION TRENCHES  
From the Evening News (Newark)





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PRESIDENT WILSON SPEAKING FROM THE REAR PLATFORM IN THE WEST LAST MONTH  
(Secretary Tumulty stands at the President's right)

the jurisdiction of this department are now of immediate and pressing importance, and I am constrained to declare my position definitely and unmistakably thereon. I refer, of course, to the Philippine question and the matter of national defense.

You know my convictions with respect to each of them. I consider the principle embodied in the Clarke amendment an abandonment of the duty of this nation and a breach of trust toward the Filipinos; so believing, I cannot accept it or acquiesce in its acceptance.

I consider the reliance upon the militia for national defense an unjustifiable imperilling of the nation's safety. It would not only be a sham in itself, but its enactment into law would prevent, if not destroy, the opportunity to procure measures of real, genuine national defense. I could not accept it or acquiesce in its acceptance. I am obliged to make my position known immediately upon each of these questions,—in a speech on Thursday afternoon upon the national defense question and in a communication to the House committee having charge of the Philippine question. If, with respect to either matter, we are not in agreement upon these fundamental principles, then I could not, with propriety, remain your seeming representative in respect thereto. Our convictions would be manifestly not only divergent, but utterly irreconcilable.

You will appreciate the necessity of timely knowledge upon my part of the determination reached by you with respect to each of these matters, so that I may act advisedly in the premises. Sincerely yours, LINDLEY M. GARRISON.

On the following day the President wrote to Mr. Garrison a much longer letter, in which, as regards the question of a specific military plan, the most important phrases were:

"I am not yet convinced. . . . I feel in duty bound to keep my mind open to conviction on that side [the National Guard argument]. . . . I should deem it a very serious mistake to shut the door against this attempt on the part of the Committee in perfect good faith to meet the essentials of the program set forth in my message, *but in a way of their own choosing*. . . . This is a time when it seems to me patience on the part of all of us is of the essence. . . ."

It must be remembered that Mr. Wilson, when he wrote this letter to the Secretary of War, had just returned from a speaking tour in which he had addressed great crowds, telling them that we might be drawn into the European war at any moment. The following sentence, taken from his speech at St. Louis, was typical of his attitude and tone in a score of addresses in a number of different States:

"Speaking with all solemnity, I assure you there is *not a day to be lost*. . . . This month should not go by without something decisive being

done by the people of the United States by way of preparation of the arms of self-vindication and defense."

*Urgency,  
Without Plans*

Congress might have adopted some measures for better defense a year ago if the Administration had been prepared to present and urge a definite plan. But it was not thus prepared. Meanwhile the conviction had grown that some steps must be taken; and the so-called Garrison, or Administration, plan had been evolved from long and careful study. Yet now, after a tour intended to arouse the contented West to a sense of danger,—with a view to bringing pressure upon Congress for instant action in that very month of February,—the President returns to Washington and lets it be known that he adheres to no plan, and is awaiting the pleasure of Congress in respect to a bill, of which he says in his letter to Mr. Garrison: "The bill in which it [the House plan] will be embodied *has not yet been drawn*, as I learned to-day from Mr. Hay." In his speeches of the previous week, the country had been told that "there is not a day to be lost . . . without something decisive being done." Yet upon returning to Washington, he made it clear that he had arrived at no fixed opinion as to the kind of thing that the country should favor, or that Congress should provide for. He instructed Mr. Garrison "to draw very carefully the distinction between your own individual views and the views of the Administration." After a warning of that kind, no Cabinet officer could do otherwise than resign out of hand. Mr. Garrison replied as follows:

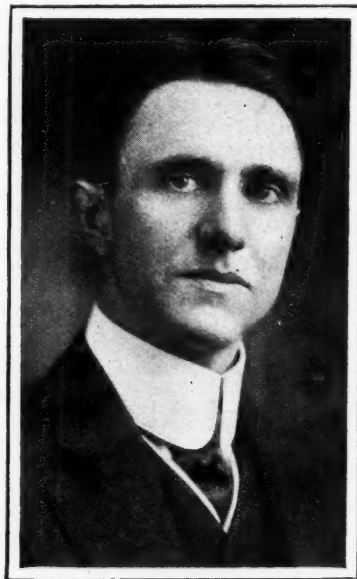
It is evident that we hopelessly disagree upon what I conceive to be fundamental principles. This makes manifest the impropriety of my longer remaining your seeming representative with respect to those matters.

Mr. Garrison's resignation was accordingly accepted at once, and the efficient Assistant Secretary of War, Mr. Henry Breckinridge, of Kentucky, sent in his resignation on the same day, making the following statement:

I have been cognizant of each detail of the correspondence between yourself and him (Mr. Garrison), leading up to this action on his part. I have subscribed to each statement of principle made by him throughout this correspondence. I share without exception his convictions, and, therefore, have tendered my resignation to take effect at your convenience.

*Where is  
Our Leader?*  
We are reviewing this episode at some length because of its larger bearings. Everything, heretofore, of importance that has been done by Demo-

cratic action in Congress since the election of President Wilson has been by means of the President's proclaimed and unshirked initiative. More than any other President in our history, he has developed the theory of government by party, with the President as party leader and as manager and director of the legislative program. He shaped and directed all the work of his first Congress, forcing to a conclusion his Tariff bill, his Currency measure that established the Federal Reserve System, his legislation concerning "big business" and establishing the Federal Trade Commission, and other matters. He had formulated his program for the new Congress; and the foremost subject had been military and naval expansion. The Garrison episode made it plain that upon this subject of national defense the President could not lead, because he had not been able to arrive at definite convictions. This is not said by way of criticism. No man can have final opinions upon all important subjects at any given moment. The vast majority of intelligent citizens of the United States have not as yet been able to arrive at firm convictions regarding a concrete program of action for defense. It was believed, however, that the Administration was a solid unit last fall in its support of its own announced program. It would be ridiculous to suppose that



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HON. HENRY S. BRECKINRIDGE  
(Who has resigned as Assistant Secretary  
of War)

Congress has any program of any sort except what may be characterized as a "yielding to inevitable pressure." If the pressure does not come by way of firm Administration leadership, it will surely come in the form of log-rolling on the part of those who know exactly what they want. The country was ready to support Mr. Wilson and Mr. Garrison as against the only feasible alternative,—namely, the further subsidizing of the State troops. Mr. Garrison's retirement marked the abandonment of Presidential leadership in the matter of National Defense, at the very moment when the President had sounded the alarm and had declared that the Defense Measures were of supreme necessity.

*Little Will Be  
Done This  
Year*

It is quite clear, then, that we cannot now expect any defense measures of large significance at this session. Several details are decided upon. Thus we will increase the number of cadets that will be trained at West Point and Annapolis. This can have no bearing upon our practical position for a matter of five years. We are to increase the facilities for building ships at two or three navy yards. The two battleships ordered a year ago,—one to be built at San Francisco, and one at Brooklyn,—will not even be started for a good many months yet. They will be fairly begun about two years after the time when they were authorized. Even if Congress should accept Secretary Daniels' program and vote the money for two more dreadnoughts and two battle cruisers, there is little prospect that those vessels would be ready to serve the nation before the year 1922, although they might possibly be ready in 1921. Congress may vote to add a few regiments to our small but terribly expensive regular army; but these would probably not be recruited, trained, and rendered effective short of another two years. Congressmen represent their districts. Not many of them have a chance to think wholly in terms of the nation at large. Speaker Champ Clark and the Republican minority leader, Mr. Mann, of Illinois, with a number of others, have attained the larger habit of mind. They are ready to support the President in a comprehensive program. But his indecision nullifies action.

*Our Factors  
for Defense*

We have in this country all the elements and factors necessary to secure the national defense, but they are disorganized. Whatever may be said regarding the manufacture of munitions for sale to belligerents, it must be remem-



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MAJOR-GEN. HUGH L. SCOTT, CHIEF OF STAFF OF  
THE UNITED STATES ARMY

(Who became Acting Secretary of War on February 10,  
when Secretary Garrison and Assistant Secretary  
Breckinridge resigned)

bered that wars now and for some time to come are to be determined chiefly by the use of ammunition. If Germany should now be thrown upon the defensive, as seems likely, her reliance for one year or for five years to come would be largely upon the efficiency of certain establishments, chief of which is that of the Krupps at Essen. Our readers may be surprised to know that Mr. Schwab's immense steel works at Bethlehem, Pa., have now attained a munitions capacity 50 per cent. greater than the Krupp works. It would take the United States Government a number of years, with the investment of a staggering sum, to create munition plants that could even begin to supply the need for artillery and shells in case of a serious war. We have scores of thousands of trained men in such professions and pursuits as that of engineering, who are ready in time of need to lend their skill to the service of the country. We have, then, great capacities in men and industries. We have a large number of institutions which, with some changes of teaching method, can give us the best kind of reserve officers. The States have an immense investment in armories now used by the National Guard. The creation of a



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## STUDENTS AT HARVARD WHO HAVE ENROLLED IN THE NEW INFANTRY REGIMENT

great reserve army merely requires a firm, comprehensive plan for training young men and utilizing existing resources. It should require comparatively little investment of money. Our readers will find a summary of views expressed by Secretary Garrison on page 353 of this issue.

*American  
Citizens  
Preparing*

While Congress is discussing plans for military reorganization, the citizens themselves are doing what they can to show their practical interest in the subject of preparedness. The work begun last summer by several thousand men at the camps at Plattsburg, N. Y., and Fort Sheridan, Illinois, has been continued during the winter by these men in their various home vicinities. Local companies have been formed for drill work and lecture courses in military affairs. Interest in this military movement has spread from coast to coast. It has been estimated that as many as 15,000 business and professional men in and near our large cities are now taking systematic courses in military training. Cavalry troops and artillery batteries have been organized, as well as infantry companies. The National Guard has been strengthened by the impetus of the preparedness sentiment, and is coöperating with Plattsburg camp men in various cities by extending the use of armories, rifle-ranges, and other facilities. The universities, also, have caught the spirit of military preparation. Harvard has inaugurated a military course, and formed a

regiment of infantry. Yale has organized an artillery battery. Among the land-grant colleges giving military education, the University of Illinois, with more than two thousand men under military instruction, is a notable example. Five camps have already been planned for next summer at Plattsburg, and one is to be held in the South, at Chattanooga, in the spring. Others will doubtless be established further West and on the Pacific Coast. It is anticipated that the attendance at next summer's camps will far exceed that of last year.

*The  
Philippines  
Bill*

Mr. Garrison's letter, as already quoted by us, shows that he had another reason of major importance for resigning. The administration of the Philippine Islands belongs to the War Department. Even if, as we believe, Mr. Garrison had been over-loyal in defending the mistakes and faults of the present management of affairs at Manila, every one knows that he has had the welfare of the Islands at heart, and has had no part or lot in the scheme to abandon a trust which we had assumed on behalf of many complex and delicate interests. It will be remembered that last year, in the previous Congress, under the leadership of Chairman Jones of the House Committee on Insular Affairs, there was pending a bill for increased self-government in the Islands; and in the preamble of that bill there was expressed the intention of the United States to give the Islands inde-

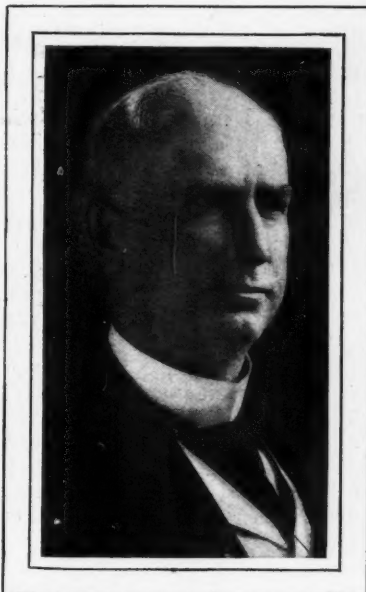


pendence at some unnamed time in the near future. The pending Philippine bill is based upon the work of the Jones Committee as revised by the Senate. For the most part the bill is a very elaborate code of fundamental provisions, in the nature of one of our State constitutions. Congress and the country, late in January, were surprised by the action of Senator Clark of Arkansas in offering an amendment providing for our definite evacuation and abandonment of this great territorial possession of the United States. After extended debate, with some changes, the Clarke amendment was adopted.

It provides for our withdrawal "scuttling" from the Islands two years hence, although this period may by the President be extended two years longer, if he deems it necessary. This abrupt decision to leave the Islands to their fate takes form in Section 34, at the end of a very elaborate measure which provides permanent principles of fundamental law and detailed machinery of government for the archipelago. It is hard to imagine anything more impudent or ridiculous than for us to assume at this moment to make a new code of permanent laws for islands that we are abandoning on the ground that our presence violates the right of those people to make their own laws, and to exercise full sovereignty! The bill provides in the most deliberate way,—as if contemplating at least a century of further American control,—for a scheme of government in the islands that is to be kept subject to American over-

sight and control by Congress and the President. Many of the provisions of the bill relate to matters which could hardly become operative within the period to which our sojourn is limited by the provisions of this same bill. The Philippines have already a working system of government, and quite adequate laws. If they are competent to assume independence as our Democratic majority at Washington now holds, they are certainly competent to make such changes in their system of government as they may please.

This bill, which, in effect, says we are to "scuttle" year after next, sets forth the sort of Anglo-Saxon constitutional principles and safeguards that were admired in the eighteenth century; and it rearranges districts, electoral machinery, and all the parts of a governing scheme, quite as if we were legislating for Americans in Alaska, rather than for Filipinos in the Orient. The stupidity of it might make one shudder; but the humor of it helps to save the situation. Senator Clarke is a distinguished constitutional lawyer, who would be quite capable of seriously advising England to impose the State Constitution and statutes of Arkansas upon the people of the Egyptian Sudan, and then



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HON. JAMES P. CLARKE, UNITED STATES SENATOR FROM ARKANSAS

(Who is author of the amendment to the Philippine bill fixing a time for the independence of the Islands)



A DOUBTFUL KINDNESS, TO THE FILIPINOS

"Here, run over to the House and get your 'fettlers' knocked off!"

From the Times-Picayune (New Orleans)

promptly to withdraw all the English administrators and political advisors,—the Sudan to take its immediate place as a sovereign member of the family of nations. And yet this same Democratic Senate, with its misconception of affairs in the Philippines, had in hand at the same time last month the ratification of treaties which practically reduce both Nicaragua and Haiti from positions of full self-government and sovereignty to those of oversight and control by the United States. Haiti ought, indeed, to be thus supported, for it is incapable of protecting its own people in their right to daily peace and security, while it is also at disadvantage in maintaining responsible relations with the rest of the world. Mr. Garrison, in his letter to the President, called the Clarke amendment "an abandonment of the duty of this nation, and a breach of trust toward the Filipinos." This, of course, was the simple truth. President Wilson, replying to Secretary Garrison, admitted that in his judgment the Clarke amendment "is unwise at this time." The President proceeded, however, as follows:

It would clearly be most indefensible for me to take the position that I must dissent from that action should both houses of Congress concur in a bill embodying that amendment. That is a matter upon which I must of course withhold

judgment until the joint action of the two houses reaches me in definite form. What the final action of the houses will be no one can at this time certainly forecast.

Yet, in view of the approaching Presidential contest, there is hardly anyone who could suppose that the Democratic Senate would have adopted the Clarke amendment if the President had been opposed, and had been as ready to express his opinions and wishes to his followers in this matter as he has shown himself to be in many instances.

*A Serious Business*

From the international standpoint, the Philippines are as much a part of the territory of the United States as India is a part of the British Empire. It would, perhaps, be easier to organize a safe and responsible independent government in India than in the Philippines. Few sensible people in this country regard our continued presence in the Philippines from the standpoint of what Bryan and the Democratic platform call "imperialism." We are engaged there in a great work of education, health improvement, agricultural direction, good policing, and honest taxation. Foreign interests have important rights of property and of commerce in the Islands, and these are Spanish, French, English, German, Japanese, and Chinese, as well as American. Colonel Roosevelt and many Republican leaders believe that the Democrats have created a situation that makes our remaining at Manila practically impossible, and that we must therefore withdraw as soon as we can honorably do so. But it is plain that the Democrats must accept responsibility for the consequences. As for "imperialism," the worst form of it is involved in the doctrine of the last Democratic platform, which demands that we must abandon all our good work for the welfare of the Filipino people, but must appropriate and keep for ourselves certain desirable coaling stations and naval bases. This is imperialism of the bad kind. What England is doing for the people of Egypt and the Sudan represents imperialism at its best, although Englishmen tell us that nothing they are doing is quite as good as the work we have done in the Philippines, particularly in teaching the people to govern their own towns and villages, besides giving them security, trade education, and protection from epidemic diseases. The Senate talked loosely and much about "guaranteeing" the independence of the Philippines, and then dropped the idea as a manifest absurdity.



LONG PANTS FOR "OUR LITTLE BROWN BROTHER"  
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)

*A Settled Issue*

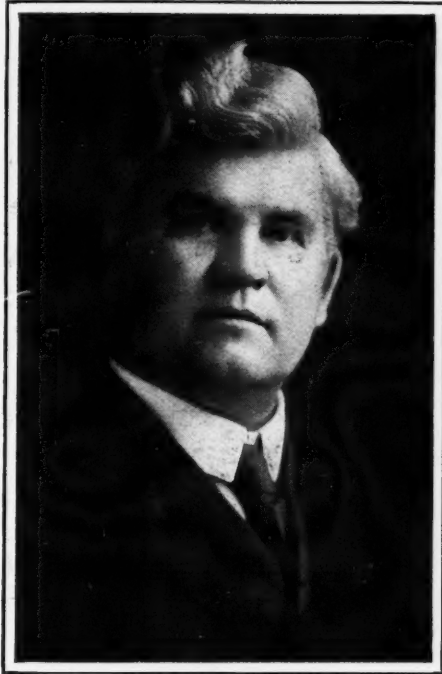
It was the prevailing opinion at Washington, later last month, that the President had become fully converted to the bill as it passed the Senate, and that Mr. Jones, of the House committee, would favor the adoption of the measure as it stood without change. It should be said that the vote on the Clarke amendment was a tie, which was decided by the affirmative vote of Vice-President Marshall. But when the final vote came on the bill as a whole, including the Clarke amendment, the measure went through with fifty-two affirmative and only twenty-four negative votes. Five Republicans voted with the Democrats. These were Borah, Kenyon, La Follette, Norris, and Works. It is a mistake to suppose that we should ever have had to carry on warfare on land or sea to hold those islands. We ought so to exercise our trusteeship as to make our work acceptable to everybody concerned. We have no need of armies or of naval bases on that side of the Pacific. We should train the Filipino people for self-defense, and concentrate our own defense plans upon the situation here at home.

*The Tariff Board*

There has been a general demand on the part of business interests for a new tariff policy so framed as to meet the situations that are likely to arise after the conclusion of the European war. The Democrats are not prepared to admit that their Underwood tariff of 1913 is wrong in any fundamental respects. The thing now most generally favored,—it has also secured the support of the President,—is a tariff commission to study situations as they arise and to make report and recommendation to Congress. The Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, Mr. Claude Kitchin, who is majority leader of the House, is not in sympathy with the plan of a commission, and Representative Rainey, of Illinois, was therefore selected to introduce the bill and to take the lead in steering it through the House. The commission is to have the most complete inquisitorial power, in order to arrive at the facts as respects any proposed tariff change. It is to be known as the United States Tariff Commission, and is to have five members, not more than three of them belonging to the same political party.

*A New Shipping Bill*

The Administration has revived the plan of a Government-owned fleet of merchant ships, upon a plan that has been worked out by Secretary



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HENRY T. RAINEY, OF ILLINOIS

(Who is ranking Democratic member of the Ways and Means Committee, and managing the Tariff Board bill)

McAdoo and Secretary Redfield, both of whom are enthusiastic for the measure. It will almost certainly pass the House, and it has better chances in the Senate than the bill that was defeated last year. This measure, which is in the hands of the Merchant Marine and Fisheries Committee, of which the Hon. Joshua W. Alexander is chairman, begins with the creation of the "United States Shipping Board." Such a board is authorized to build or buy ships, to be leased or otherwise employed for the purposes of our commerce on the seas, the ships to be suitable for naval auxiliaries and army transports. The Board is authorized to spend \$50,000,000. The Board may further create a joint stock company for the purpose of acquiring and operating merchant vessels, with the United States as the principal stockholder. The Board is by this bill given a wide range of powers with respect to the whole business of transportation at sea. There is every prospect of an immense growth of the foreign trade of the United States, and the chief difficulty to be encountered is that of transportation. Government help in one form or another is needed only



Photo by American Press Ass'n., N. Y.

COL. THEODORE ROOSEVELT

(Photographed on the deck of the steamship *Guiana* on February 11, as he started on a trip of some weeks' duration to the West Indies)

for a period of years during which an American merchant marine can be built up. Once developed, our shipping interests, under favorable laws, would need no subsidies and could meet the demands of our commerce. It is quite possible that the proposed Shipping Board might prove the starting point for a large development of American shipping, and that experience would guide the country in the shaping of further legislation. The subject will justify careful study.

It was confidently expected in the middle of February that the treaty with Nicaragua would be ratified, and that the treaty with Colombia would be defeated by virtue of Republican opposition in the Senate. We explained the

*Treaties.—  
Good and Bad*

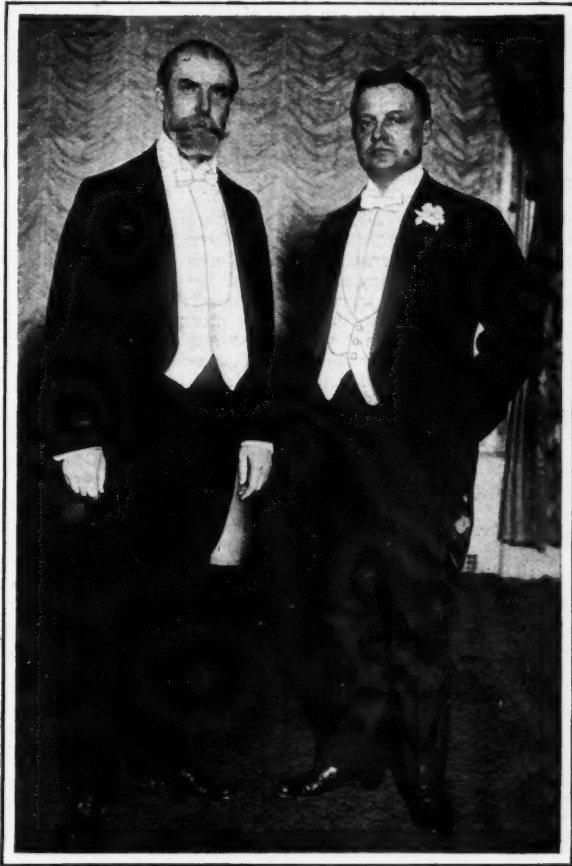
Nicaragua treaty last month and favored its approval. We have on repeated occasions pointed out the unparalleled folly and disgrace of the treaty with Colombia, for continuing to countenance which the present Administration cannot be too severely criticized. Mr. Roosevelt last month, while this treaty was pending in the Senate, brought out a new book entitled "Fear God and Take Your Own Part." It is a volume of closely related essays upon current American problems. While most of these have appeared in printed articles, the book, as a whole, has fresh timeliness, and it will form almost assuredly the chief political text-book for use against the party in power in the coming campaign. One of its most trenchant chapters, called "The Panama Blackmail Treaty," reviews at great length, and with an array of unanswerable facts, the pending treaty, which proposes not only to pay a large sum of money to Colombia, but which also impairs for all time in mischievous ways our authority over the Canal. Mr. Roosevelt reviews our policy in Mexico, and advocates preparedness, showing, among other things, that if Belgium had been as well prepared as Switzerland, she would have escaped calamity, just as Holland and Switzerland have escaped it.

*Mr. Root's  
Speech*

The Republicans are beginning to formulate the grounds upon which they will challenge the Democratic party in the Presidential and Congressional elections. The most striking single expression from orthodox Republican sources is that made last month by Mr. Elihu Root, at an unofficial convention of New York Republicans. The more important parts of the speech were in criticism of the foreign policies of the Wilson Administration. We are printing in this number of the REVIEW those portions of Mr. Root's speech, because they are likely to fix the lines of certain discussions that will continue until November. The newspapers in the aggregate have printed countless thousands of columns setting forth the Administration's European and Mexican policies. It is, therefore, reasonable to present the criticism of so distinguished an opponent as the former Republican Secretary of State. It happens that the views expressed in Mr. Root's speech are in remarkable accord with those that are to be found in Colonel Roosevelt's book. Thus the Republicans and Progressives seem to be finding their way towards agreement as respects the dominant issues of the campaign.



Agreement upon candidates is, of course, a different matter. The conclusion of the speech was devoted to what might be expected if the Republican party was restored to power. First, we are promised "a policy of moderate but adequate protection to American industry." Second, we are told that "the Government will be administered with the honesty and efficiency which have marked Republican administrations in the past." We are promised, third, that the "best possible course for the preservation of peace will be followed by a foreign policy which, with courtesy and friendliness to all nations, is frank and fearless and honest in its assertion of American rights." Fourth, the Republicans stand for "full and adequate preparation by the American people for their own defense." This idea is explained by Mr. Root to embrace "service to our country by every citizen according to his ability in peace and in war." Fifth, Republicans hold that "readiness for defense will give power to our diplomacy in the maintenance of peace." The speech closed with glowing expressions of high American idealism.



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JUSTICE CHARLES E. HUGHES, OF THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT  
AND GOV. CHARLES S. WHITMAN, OF NEW YORK, AS PHOTOGRAPHED  
TOGETHER AT A RECENT DINNER OF THE NEW YORK BAR ASSOCIATION

The New York convention endorsed no Presidential candidate, although it was predominantly in favor of Mr. Root himself. It gave chief place in its platform to expressions in accord with Mr. Root's views of American policy. It happens that those views are pre-eminently shared by Colonel Roosevelt. Last month brought another expression from Justice Hughes. He answered a letter from Virginia's one Republican congressman, Mr. Slemph, who had informed him of confidential movements among Southern politicians promoted by Mr. Frank Hitchcock, who was the Taft campaign manager and who is said now to be organizing a Hughes boom throughout the country. Justice Hughes denied the authority of anybody to mention him as a Presidential candidate. He did not, however, avail himself of the opportunity to tell Congressman Slemph that he would not accept a nomination if offered him by the Chicago conventions in June. As a result, therefore, the politicians have been mentioning the name of Mr. Hughes with renewed interest, and many men,—like Governor Whitman, of New York,—have been openly proclaiming their belief that the former governor of New York should be the next President. Mr. Hughes, Mr. Roosevelt, and Mr. Root will not permit their names to be voted for in the Republican primaries. Senator Cummins shows signs of growing strength in the West. The nomination will not be decided in advance, but by action of the conventions after delegates reach Chicago. Unusual interest, therefore, is being shown in the personnel of men proposed for delegates. The convention bids fair to be one of the most important in the history of American politics.

*Mr. Wilson  
in the  
Primaries*

Mr. Wilson, in a letter written last month to the Secretary of State of Ohio, definitely authorized the placing of his name as a Democratic candidate on the ballot to be used in the Democratic primaries of April 25. His brief statement to Secretary of State Hildebrandt is as follows:

My Dear Sir: While I am entirely unwilling to enter into any contest for the Presidential nomination of the Democratic party, I am willing to permit the use of my name that the Democrats in Ohio may make known their preference in regard to that nomination. In order therefore to satisfy the technical terms of the statutes of the State of Ohio I hereby consent to the use of my name as a candidate for the Presidency by any candidate who seeks to be elected a delegate to the Democratic National Convention, which is to assemble in June next. Respectfully yours,  
WOODROW WILSON.

*The  
Shackleford  
Bill*

One of the less vicious of the so-called "pork" bills that tempt worthy Congressmen at every session is the Shackleford so-called "Good Roads" bill that was passed by a vote of 281 to 81 late in January. This measure takes \$25,000,000 out of the Treasury and distributes it among the States to help make ordinary country roads. Some States have already spent large sums and provided for themselves roads that do them credit. Other States have spent practically nothing. The States that are doing this work for themselves do not wish small subsidies from Congress. The Shackleford bill gives every State, great and small, \$65,000 as a starter. It divides the remainder of the appropriation into two parts. One part is distributed among the States in proportion to population. The other part is distributed in proportion to the mileage of roads that are used or that "might be used" for postal rural delivery routes. It must be said for the Shackleford bill that it is not without certain good motives and intelligent features. It intends to provide a good kind of engineering supervision, so that road money may be effectively spent. It intends also to stimulate local expenditure, inasmuch as the Federal gift can be used only where at least an equal amount is provided in the States affected. But this is not the year for a national Good Roads bill; and the pending measure, which will probably be defeated in the Senate, has many defects. That Mr. Shackleford and its supporters are desirous to promote good roads, and sincere in their attitude, is of course beyond question. This bill is by no means so indefensible as numerous

measures that have gone through previous Congresses requiring the building of expensive post-offices in villages which have few people and do little postal business.

*Water Power  
on Public  
Lands*

One of the few administration measures that have been advanced during the present session of Congress is the bill for water-power development on public lands under fifty-year leases. This was drafted by Representative Ferris, of Oklahoma, Chairman of the House Committee on Public Lands, and the lease feature has the support of Secretary Lane, as well as that of Gifford Pinchot, former Chief Forester of the United States. States in which the power plants are located will continue to regulate and control the service and charges to the consumers, and will also supervise all stock and bond issues. The Federal Government will assume jurisdiction in such matters only in cases where the plant is in a Territory, or where interstate use of the power is involved. Secretary Lane has repeatedly urged that the water-power resources of the country should be made available, instead of continuing the wasteful consumption of coal, oil, gas, and timber. It will also be recalled that former Secretary of War Garrison, in his annual report, recommended water-power legislation as an aid to national defense through the direct increase in the supply of nitrogen, used in the making of high explosives. This power-development bill is the first of a series of conservation measures that the Administration will seek to have enacted during the present session.

*Farm  
Credits*

In the Senate, the Hollis Rural Credit bill was favorably reported last month, and it is understood that this measure has the approval of Secretary Houston, of the Department of Agriculture, and of the House Banking and Currency Committee. It is proposed that a federal farm-loan board be created, to consist of five members appointed by the President for terms of ten years each, and paid from the public treasury. Loans are to be made to farmers by twelve or more federal land banks, each operating in a separate district, and having a capital of not less than \$500,000. Loans may be made through local associations of borrowers, called National Farm Loan Associations. These associations will admit members who desire to borrow, and their directors and loan committees will pass on the value of

the security and the character of the borrower. Every borrower will take stock in the Farm Loan Association to the amount of 5 per cent. of the face of his loan. This amount will be subscribed by the association to the stock of the land bank. Loans will be made for as long a period as thirty-six years, and the mortgages may be repaid in small amounts extended over the whole period. Through this mechanism the farmer should be assured a measurably lower interest rate than the average that now prevails. In some parts of the West a 5-per-cent. rate would be a boon.

#### *Child Labor Again*

The Keating-Owen bill, excluding from interstate commerce articles manufactured by the labor of any child under fourteen years of age, or on which any child under fifteen had worked more than eight hours a day or had been employed at night, was passed last month by the House of Representatives, and it was thought that its prospects of passage in the Senate were better than ever before. The argument so frequently used before State legislatures considering child-labor bills, that manufacturers in States adopting such legislation will be compelled to compete with those in other States who employ child labor, would be completely blanketed by the enactment of this proposed federal law which would bring the manufacturers of all States under the same regulation, and would virtually shut out from interstate competition all those who employ child labor, whatever may be the statutory regulations of their respective States. Fortunately, the sentiment against this form of human exploitation is rapidly growing among the manufacturers themselves, who are coming to see that the labor of children is "bad business" from every point of view, and that in the long run it becomes a source of economic waste.

#### *Railroad Wages*

In the industrial field two groups of workers are presenting demands that practically concern everyone in the country, for the two great interests of transportation and fuel-supply touch the life of our whole people vitally and intimately. The 400,000 railroad employees included in the membership of the four great brotherhoods, in demanding an eight-hour day, are not, as the public may have inferred, simply asking that a working day of eight hours be made the basis for all railroad train service, but are proposing

to retain the present standard of a one-hundred-mile run, that every man who works on a train making that distance, whether in four, five, or six hours, shall be regarded as having done eight hours of work in a day, and that for all work on a one-hundred-mile run in excess of eight hours overtime shall be paid. The public is not in a position to judge of the merits of these demands, but the fact that immediately interests all shippers and purchasers of goods that have to be shipped over railroads is this: An increase in the hourly rate of pay, estimated at 25 per cent., and a very much greater increase in the hourly pay for overtime, will, if conceded to the employees, be transferred to the public sooner or later in the form of increased rates, after due consideration of the matter by the Interstate Commerce Commission. Meanwhile, the coöperation of the four great trainmen's unions, representing over five hundred lines of railroad, has had the effect of bringing into existence a national board made up of railroad operating heads, in which all the railroads of the country will be represented, and thus for the first time in their history these corporations will act conjointly in opposing the movement for a wage increase.

#### *The Miners' Demands*

The United Mine Workers of America are asking large increases in miners' wages in both the bituminous and anthracite regions. A 10-per-cent. increase is demanded of the bituminous operators throughout the country and a 20-per-cent. advance, with recognition of the union, and an eight-hour day for day labor, in the anthracite district. The present contract between the operators and the unions in the anthracite region expires on April 1, and a conference of the coal operators with the representatives of the miners was called to meet in New York City on February 21, to consider the new demands. Pending the result of this conference, it has been announced by the Mine Workers that there will be no strike in case a decision fails to be reached before the expiration of the present agreement, but that the men will remain at work during the negotiations. The operators have issued statements tending to show that the profits to the companies with the present wage scale are moderate, and that a 20-per-cent. increase cannot be borne unless at least a portion of it is transferred to the consumer. The operators admit that the cost of living for the miners has risen since the present

agreement was made, but deny that the rise has been sufficient to justify anything like a wage increase of 20 per cent. In this matter the sympathies of the public are undoubtedly very generally with the miners, but at the same time past experience goes far to establish the conviction that in case the miners' demands are granted, it will be the consumer, and not the mine operator, who will pay the piper.

Although the country supposed the *Lusitania* case to have been adjusted long ago, it seems that certain points had remained in abeyance; and after much exchange of views these matters were finally brought to the verge of complete adjustment last month. Germany had agreed to all our substantial demands, and we on our side had been willing to yield upon some minor points of phraseology. This question being regarded as well out of the way, our State Department began to look hopefully to the future and to seek for world-wide approval of what are regarded as sound principles of international law regulating the conduct of war on the ocean. For the most part, merchant ships coming to the United States have had no defensive guns mounted. The English ships have taken this desirable course, and the attempt has been made to persuade

the Italian Government to cause the discontinuance of the practice of mounting one or more small guns on vessels devoted to the carrying of passengers and freight. Secretary Lansing proceeded to invite all belligerent nations to accept the view that merchant ships should not carry mounted guns, and that they should accept in good faith the doctrine of visit and search, thus avoiding all danger of being torpedoed by submarines. It was prematurely stated that the United States Government had decided to regard any vessel carrying mounted guns as an auxiliary cruiser upon arrival in our ports, and this was resented in England.

A D. 'ficult  
Point

It seems, however, that Mr. Lansing had not intended to adopt this course unless all belligerents should have consented. The German Government, apparently misunderstanding our position, announced that it would regard merchant ships carrying guns as of naval character, and that after the first of March it would proceed upon that line in its submarine policy. Whereupon our Government took affront and declined to close the *Lusitania* case, on the ground that questions of future policy and method were necessarily involved in the adjustment. Meanwhile the English and Allied governments had taken a rather menacing tone, and threatened the United States with boycotts, embargoes, and dire calamities, in case the Washington Government should rule against the arming of merchantmen. Obviously, from the standpoint of submarine warfare, the armed merchantman is a warship. A strong case can be made for each side of the controversy.

The Great  
War

Mr. Simonds, whose monthly articles on the European war as appearing in this magazine have gained world-wide notice and approval, writes in this number of the situations on several fronts, and the prospects of the new campaign undertakings as winter recedes and spring weather makes action possible. He sees few signs pointing toward early peace, and there are many men of practical judgment who fear that the war may be continued for at least another year. The cost of the war is mounting high, and it would seem as if bankruptcy were inevitable for every European nation engaged in the conflict. The impression grows that henceforth the German position will be mainly defensive, and that the Central Powers will try



THE BRITISH TORPEDO PROTECTORS  
ENGLISH CAPTAIN: "Are all on board?"  
SAILORS "No, Captain, the customary three Americans are not on board yet."

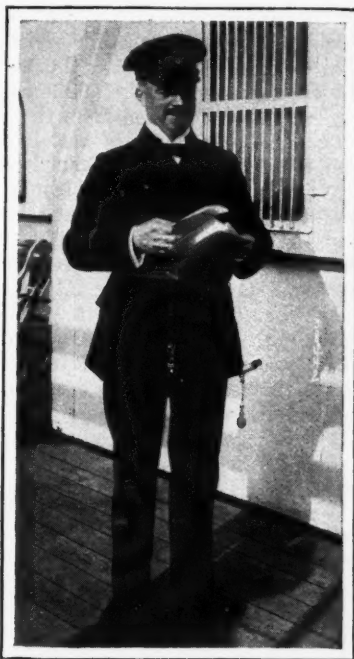
From Jugend © (Munich)



to hold their ground while exhausting men and resources as little as they can. England and the Allies grow in aggregate power, but any gains they make on land must be at frightful cost and sacrifice. Russia's capture of the great Turkish outpost of Erzerum is a forerunner of the tremendous drives Turkey will have to sustain from Russia in the near future. Germany, though driven off the sea, is daring and incessant in the determination to strike England in the element where Britannia rules. New types of submarines are said to be completed or under construction, while casual merchant ships are being fitted out in disguise to try their luck as commerce raiders. The forerunner of a group of such ocean adventurers sent a prize ship to our shores on February 1, under circumstances forming one of the most remarkable minor episodes of the war.

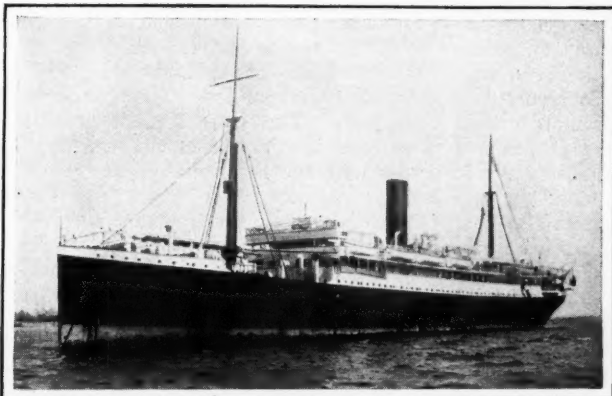
*The  
"Appam's"  
Story*

Stripped of romance, the essential facts of that episode are these: In Hampton Roads, whence we have come to expect strange tales of the sea since the war began, there suddenly arrived the British liner *Appam* under charge of a German prize crew. The story the passengers had to tell was a surprising one. A German raider had captured the *Appam* off the Canary Islands, having already sent six ships to the bottom. A prize crew of twenty-two men under Lieutenant Berg was put aboard and the ship was headed for the Virginia Capes, three thousand miles away. British cruisers and merchant ships were skilfully eluded and on the morning of February 1 the *Appam*, bearing the German flag, steamed up to Norfolk. All told there were more than 400 people aboard,



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LIEUTENANT BERG, AS HE APPEARED  
ON THE DECK OF THE S. S. APPAM



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York  
THE ENGLISH STEAMSHIP "APPAM"

(Captured by the Germans off the coast of Africa and brought to an American port.—From a photograph taken at Newport News last month)

including passengers bound for Plymouth, England; the liner's original crew; German prisoners being taken from Africa to England; and crews of other English ships that had been destroyed by the raider. Bringing the ship safely into the Virginia port, under such circumstances, was in itself a noteworthy feat of seamanship. There was some doubt at first as to our Government's attitude in the conflicting claims regarding the *Appam's* technical status, but it was finally decided that she would be treated as a prize of war, although the British Government had set up the claim that she should be released to her British owners. There were many minor discrepancies in the descriptions of the raider given by the passengers on the *Appam*. She is supposed to have been the *Ponga*, a converted fruit steamer, although Lieutenant Berg said she was the *Moewe*, a well-known personage, Count Dohna, being in command.

*The Russians  
Take  
Erzerum*

News came on February 16 that Erzerum, the ancient Armenian center in Asiatic Turkey, defended by a garrison of 100,000 men and 1000 guns, had been taken from the Turks after five days of determined assault by the Russian army under Grand Duke Nicholas. In Petrograd great importance is attached to this achievement, because of its supposed bearings on the Russian campaign in the Caucasus, and its possible indirect effect in relieving the pressure on the Allies at Salonica. Erzerum controls the roads through Armenia, with access to Trebizond, Tabriz, and Mesopotamia. The German engineers, as well as the Turks, had relied on the great strength of the forts surrounding the town. There were eighteen of these outposts, but after nine of them had been reduced by the powerful Russian artillery, the capitulation of the town was only a matter of hours. The Russians were provisioned from the Black Sea, the control of which was an important factor in their favor. This victory, achieved in spite of the intense cold and deep snow, has put new heart in the campaign of the Allies. Our frontispiece is an Erzerum picture.

*Activities of  
the War  
Fliers*

Armies and ships hold themselves in abeyance from time to time, but the airmen daily continue their work of scouting, gun-spotting, and raiding on all the battle-fronts. And this despite the rigorous cold of the winter season, which is far more intense ten thousand feet up in the air. These daring aerial knights, on their coursers of the sky, are incomparably the romantic feature of the European war. Since the beginning of the great conflict the science of military aeronautics has greatly developed. The aeroplane has demonstrated its value, and the aviator has learned better how to take care of himself. Combats among the clouds are now common. As many as nineteen have been reported in a single day, and a dozen or more clashes between sunrise and sunset are of frequent occurrence. (An article on the subject of aerial fighting tactics will be found on page 360 of this issue.) The machines also have undergone notable changes. Surprises in the way of new aeroplanes are constantly being heralded. First it is a giant battleplane, with twin bodies and engines, and guns mounted fore and aft, that sweeps everything before it. Then comes a small armed monoplane, the German Fokker, mounted by an intrepid pilot, which by tremendous speed and agility overcomes the advantage of the big battle-

plane. This again is challenged by a similar, speedier aeroplane from the opposite side. Then come reports of new German air monsters, measuring 75 feet across the wings, and equipped with four motors totalling 700 horsepower, and four machine guns, as well as a bomb-throwing device, and capable of carrying 27 men. And here in America there is being built a triplane of even greater dimensions and power. The wings of this giant bird will be 133 feet across; its boat-shaped body will be 68 feet long; its four motors will total 960 horsepower, and the entire machine, with all its equipment, will weigh over ten tons.

*Aviation  
Advanced  
by the War*

And so the contest continues. With the best inventive minds of the belligerent nations and vast mechanical resources concentrated on the development and manufacture of the flying-machine, improvement was inevitable. The gratifying aspect of it all is that this progress, unlike other inventions for war uses, will be available for purposes of peace. The war has done much to advance aeronautics. Under the stress of military necessity, development has been attained which would have been far more leisurely under conditions of peace. This is pointed out in the article by Mr. Waldemar Kaempffert, in this issue, on the "Aeroplane of To-day." Before the war the business of building flying-machines was in a precarious state. Private buyers were too few and government support was negligible. But the war brought a flood of orders, and the industry has boomed, not only in the belligerent countries, but in the United States.

*Aeroplane  
Building in  
America*

A dozen or more aeroplane factories are located in this country, at Buffalo and Ithaca, New York; Boston and Marblehead, Mass.; Dayton, Ohio; and in New Jersey and California. The Curtiss plant at Buffalo is perhaps the largest in the world. Together with the Burgess Company, of Marblehead, Mass. (with which the Curtiss Company has recently combined in order to be able to take care of the large number of war orders received), the two plants are credited with a capacity of ten machines a day. This rate of output compares favorably with that of the combined factories of France, which is thirty machines a day, and the factories of Great Britain, which is twenty-five machines. The Curtiss Company recently closed an order for \$15,000,000

worth of aeroplanes for the British government. Another order from the same source reported last month was for twenty enormous triplanes, costing \$75,000 each. France, it may be remarked, is appropriating the huge sum of \$16,560,000 for aviation alone, for the second quarter of this year. When it is seen that at this rate the appropriation for the entire year would be over \$66,000,000, the importance of aviation in the war will be realized. American flying-schools, also, are busily engaged teaching men to navigate the air. During the winter season these schools are located mostly in the South,—at Newport News, Va., St. Augustine and Palm Beach, Fla., Augusta, Ga., San Antonio, Texas, and Alameda, Cal.

*For Our  
Aerial  
Preparedness*

The development of the American aeroplane industry, and the impetus given to the art of flying, will serve well as a foundation in building up our own aerial defenses. An excellent start toward this object has been made by the inauguration of a national aeroplane fund, under the direction of the Aero Club of America. This fund, begun last August, has already reached a total of more than \$250,000. It promises to exceed the popular funds of this kind raised a few years ago in France (\$1,220,000) and in Germany (\$1,803,626). The money is to be used in purchasing aeroplanes for the militia of the various States and for training aviators. Organization and training have already begun in a number of States. Enthusiasm for aerial preparedness is rapidly spreading. A fund of \$100,000 has recently been underwritten in Chicago to be used for the purpose of training aviators. Automobile manufacturers are also ready to cooperate with the army and navy, not only in giving men opportunities for studying motors, but in standardizing the aeroplane industry. Recently the Post-Office Department has asked for bids for aerial service on eight mail routes. Seven of these routes are in Alaska, where transportation is difficult, the remaining one being largely an over-water route between New Bedford and Nantucket. This aerial service is to be much cheaper and more frequent than the present methods. But the end in view, apart from these considerations, is the stimulation of aviation activity and the training of aviators, in the interest of national preparedness. Another excellent "preparedness" plan, in which Rear-Admiral Peary is especially active, is the movement for the establishment of an

aerial coast patrol, with stations located at intervals of 100 miles.

*Air Raids  
and England's  
Defenses*

The Zeppelins resumed raiding operations last month, visiting Paris on the night of January 29-30. The casualties were heavy,—23 killed and 29 injured. This raid came with an especial shock, as the French capital had for some time been unmolested. Its aerial defenses had been considered excellent, but on this particular occasion the invaders, it seems, were protected by foggy weather conditions, making pursuit and marksmanship difficult. England also was attacked through the air on January 23, this time with aeroplanes. The total "bag" was one killed and six injured. The controversy over England's aerial defenses continues to rage in Parliament. Last month Mr. Balfour made the sensationally frank admission that the government had made a mistake years ago in deciding against a policy of airship construction. He regretted that England had not developed the Zeppelin type of vessels, for Germany certainly had an advantage in possessing them. While efforts were now being made to remedy conditions, it was unreasonable to expect to catch up with an enemy that had had a ten years' start. Mr. Balfour also admitted England's deficiency in air-defense guns, and acknowledged the lack of material for the air service.

*The Annual  
Flood Losses*

The loss of life and property by floods in the United States was the theme of an article in our February issue. The extensive floods of the latter part of January in Southern California, Oklahoma, and Arizona have again brought attention to this urgent problem. Torrential rains and cloudbursts caused, perhaps, the worst floods ever experienced in those regions. The cities of San Diego, Pomona, Colton, Riverside, Ontario, and Monrovia, in California, suffered greatly. About fifty lives were lost in the Otay Valley, with nearly the same disastrous result in the San Luis Rey and San Pasqual valleys. The White River in Arkansas also rose to flood stages, causing much distress. The breaking of a Mississippi levee at Hickman, Ky., made nearly a thousand people homeless, while various sections in the Ohio Valley have also had their annual flood visitations. These disastrous occurrences always call attention to the necessity of grappling with this problem, but interest in it seems to subside with the waters themselves.

# RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From January 20 to February 17, 1916)

## *The Last Part of January*

January 20.—The extent of recent aircraft activity in all the theaters of war is indicated by a British official report mentioning fourteen air conflicts between British and Germans.

January 21.—Russia reports the continued rout of Turkish forces in the Caucasus, the Russian armies advancing to the forts at Erzerum. . . . King Nicholas of Montenegro arrives in Italy, on his way to France, leaving the defense of his country and the retreat of his army to Prince Mirko and three cabinet ministers.

January 24.—The Compulsory Service bill passes its final reading in the British House of Commons, by vote of 383 to 36.

January 25.—The German Minister of Finance announces that the latest German loan of \$3,000,000,000 has been completely taken up, 94½ per cent. of the amount being popular subscriptions.

January 26.—The Compulsory Service measure passes its final reading in the British House of Lords.

It is declared at Berlin that the Bundesrath will further reduce the production of beer from 60 per cent. to 45 per cent. of the normal output.

January 26-27.—Delegates representing more than 2,000,000 trade unionists, meeting at Bristol, England, pledge themselves to support the Government's prosecution of the war, but oppose the adoption of conscription.

January 27.—The State Department at Washington makes public its note of January 4, vigorously protesting against British interference with American mails to and from the Scandinavian countries, which in some cases is "vexatiously inquisitorial."

Britain's Compulsory Service act receives royal assent and becomes a law.

A French Socialist deputy, speaking in England, gives figures regarding French casualties; 800,000 soldiers have been killed, 1,400,000 wounded, and 300,000 taken prisoners.

Two French aviators drop bombs on Freiburg, Germany, as a retaliatory measure for a similar attack by Germans.

January 28.—A German offensive in the Artois district breaks through the French lines at three points, resulting particularly in the capture of two miles of trenches south of the Somme.

It is reported at Washington that the United States has sent identical notes to the belligerent powers, setting forth a declaration of principles regarding attacks by submarines on merchant vessels, and asking whether the governments would subscribe to such an agreement.

It is semi-officially declared in Berlin that Montenegrin political and military leaders signed a peace agreement on January 25, with Field-Marshal von Hoefel, of the Austrian army.

Premier Asquith states that the total British casualties to January 9 were 549,467.

January 29-30.—German Zeppelin airships pass over Paris in two night raids and drop bombs in the city, "in reprisal for the dropping of bombs by French aeroplanes on Freiburg"; twenty-three persons are killed during the first raid.

January 31.—A fleet of Zeppelin airships passes over the northeastern counties of England, dropping more than 200 bombs and killing 59 persons. It is announced that the recruits raised by Ireland, up to January 8, numbered 86,277.

## *The First Week of February*

February 1.—A German prize crew brings into Hampton Roads, Va., the British passenger liner *Appam*, with 450 passengers, captured by the German converted cruiser *Moewe* (or *Roon*) on January 16, off the coast of northeast Africa; at least six other British merchant ships were sunk.

The Austrian Government informs the United States that no Austrian submarine was concerned in the sinking of the *Persia* on December 30.

B. V. Sturmer, a member of the Council of the Empire, becomes Premier of Russia, succeeding Jean L. Goremykin; Foreign Minister Sazonov and War Minister Polivanov retain office.

February 4.—The loss of the Zeppelin airship *L 19* is admitted by the German Admiralty; a British fishing vessel had reported seeing it, in a sinking condition, in the North Sea.

February 7.—A Berlin news agency declares that there are in Germany 1,429,171 prisoners of war.

## *The Second Week of February*

February 8.—A federal grand jury at San Francisco indicts thirty-two persons, including the German and Turkish consuls, for alleged conspiracies to wreck ammunition plants and to furnish supplies to German war vessels at the beginning of the war.

North of Arras, France, the Germans carry by a sudden attack half a mile of French trenches.

February 9.—The Russians capture Uscieczko, a natural stronghold on the Dniester River, Galicia, threatening the Austro-German position at Czernowitz, capital of Bukovina.

February 10.—Germany and Austria announce that after February 29 they will treat armed merchant ships of enemy countries as war vessels; it is maintained that there are numerous cases not only where resistance was offered by such merchant ships but where attacks were made.

Premier Briand of France is warmly welcomed at Rome on a visit to confer with Italian officials.

Premier Muchkovich of Montenegro declares at Paris that the peace proposals discussed with Austria were merely to gain time for the harassed army; an official Austrian statement says that the disarming of Montenegrins has been completed.

February 11.—The new Chamber of Deputies



in Greece upholds the neutrality policy of Premier Skouloudis by vote of 266 to 6.

The French War Office announces the recapture of a notable part of the trenches lost to the Germans on January 28.

The Austrian army of invasion in Albania comes in touch with the Italian forces concentrated near Durazzo.

In the Champagne district, the French break through the German line, northeast of Massiges, and capture trenches 300 yards long.

February 12.—In the Champagne district, south of Ste. Marie-à-Py, the Germans carry by storm 700 yards of French trenches.

February 13.—The French Ministry of Marine admits that the small cruiser *Amiral Charner* has probably been sunk by a German submarine while patrolling the Syrian coast.

February 14.—In the Ypres region, German assaults on the British line result in the capture of British positions over a front of half a mile.

The British Government calls out all the remaining unmarried men in England, Scotland, and Wales, eligible for service under both the voluntary and the compulsory service systems.

### *The Third Week of February*

February 15.—British Orders in Council are issued authorizing the taking over, whenever necessary, of war materials, food, factories, etc., and the exercise of more stringent control of shipping; a royal proclamation is also issued, restricting the importation of paper, certain kinds of paper manufactures, tobacco, furniture wood, stones, and slates.

The British Parliament reassembles after a short recess; Premier Asquith gives warning that

to meet war costs of \$25,000,000 a day large additions in taxation will soon be proposed.

The French Minister of Marine, M. Ribot, introduces in the Chamber a war budget of \$1,400,000,000 for the second quarter of 1916; current war expenditures are at the rate of \$15,000,000 a day.

It is understood at Washington that conferences between Secretary Lansing and Ambassador von Bernstorff have resulted in a settlement of the *Lusitania* controversy; Germany, it is reported, will "recognize" instead of "assume" liability.

February 16.—It is stated at Washington that a settlement of the controversy with Germany over the *Lusitania* sinking will not be accepted until it is ascertained how the agreement will be affected by Germany's proposal to treat armed merchantmen as war vessels.

The Russian army of the Caucasus, under Grand Duke Nicholas, captures the Turkish fortress at Erzerum, Armenia, after assaults lasting five days.

It is officially announced at Paris that Great Britain, France, and Russia have renewed their pledge not to end hostilities without Belgium being reestablished in independence.

February 17.—In an appeal to the United States for cooperation with other neutral nations to cause Great Britain to cease interfering with mails, Sweden declares that "at present only a few rules serving as protection to neutral commercial intercourse are being observed by Great Britain."

A British official communication declares that the conquest of the German colony of Kamerun, Africa, is practically complete; in German East Africa the Germans still hold strong positions.

## RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From January 20 to February 17, 1916)

### PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

January 25.—In the House, Mr. Mann (Rep., Ill.), leader of the minority, announces his conversion to the cause of preparedness, and urges large appropriations for army and navy in order to avoid the greater costs of war; a Good Roads bill, appropriating \$25,000,000 for distribution among the States, is passed by vote of 281 to 81.

January 31.—In the House, the Post Office Appropriation bill is reported from committee (\$320,509,879); the Burnett Immigration bill, imposing a literacy test and other restrictions designed to prevent an influx of undesirable immigrants after the war, is favorably reported; the Administration's Shipping bill is introduced and referred to the Committee on Merchant Marine.

February 1.—In the House, the Administration's Tariff Commission bill is introduced by Mr. Rainey (Dem., Ill.), providing for a non-partisan body of five members to investigate and report upon tariff matters.

February 2.—The Senate, with the Vice-President casting the deciding vote, adopts the amendment to the Philippine bill offered by Mr. Clarke (Dem., Ark.), providing that independence shall

be recognized within four years unless conditions in the islands warrant postponement; the Committee on Foreign Relations orders favorable reports on the treaties with Nicaragua and Colombia, after reducing the cash payment to Colombia from \$25,000,000 to \$15,000,000 and making the expression of regret mutual. . . . The House adopts the Keating Child Labor bill, by vote of 337 to 46, prohibiting interstate shipment of the products of child labor.

February 4.—The Senate, by vote of 52 to 24, passes the Philippine bill (six progressive Republicans voting with the Democratic majority); the measure extends independence to the Filipinos not later than 1920; amendments proposing a joint treaty with foreign powers guaranteeing the neutrality of the Philippines are rejected.

February 7.—The House, without dissenting vote, passes the first two of the Administration's national defense bills; one measure increases the corps of cadets at the Naval Academy by 540, while the second makes appropriation for enlarging facilities at the Mare Island (California) and New York navy yards for the construction of large battleships.

February 9.—The Senate adopts by unanimous

vote the "preparedness" measures increasing the number of Annapolis midshipmen and improving navy-yard facilities for constructing battleships.

February 15.—In the Senate, Mr. Hollis' (Rep., N. H.) Rural Credits bill is favorably reported.

February 17.—The Senate receives from the President a report which shows that 76 Americans were killed in Mexico during three years (63 in the single year 1915), besides 36 who were killed by Mexicans on American soil.

#### AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

January 19.—Major-Gen. Leonard Wood, former Chief of Staff, testifies before the Senate Committee on Military Affairs that the United States is defenceless against invasion by trained troops, and that a compulsory system is required to furnish a proper army and reserve force.

January 20.—Ex-President Roosevelt, in a noteworthy address at an Americanization meeting in Philadelphia, discourses on patriotism, big business, and national defense.

January 24.—The United States Supreme Court upholds the constitutionality of the Income Tax law; the opinion, read by Chief Justice White, dismisses all the objections raised in five suits.

January 25.—It becomes known at Washington that President Wilson has changed his mind and now favors the creation of a non-partisan, expert tariff board.

January 27.—President Wilson delivers at New York the first two of a series of addresses in advocacy of his program for defense legislation.

January 28.—The President nominates Louis D. Brandeis, the Boston lawyer, to be Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court, succeeding the late Justice Lamar. . . . President Wilson leaves Washington for a rapid speech-making tour through the Middle West in support of his national defense policies.

February 4.—President Wilson returns to Washington, after delivering twenty addresses in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Wisconsin, Iowa, Kansas, and Missouri.

February 10.—Lindley M. Garrison, Secretary of War, resigns because of irreconcilable differences with President Wilson regarding the proper method of obtaining a trained reserve force and the plan to abandon the Philippines.

February 14.—President Wilson authorizes the Secretary of State in Ohio to permit the use of his name as a candidate for the Democratic nomination for President in the April primary.

February 15.—At a convention of State Republicans in New York City, Mr. Elihu Root condemns the Wilson administration in its handling of domestic and foreign affairs (see page 298).

#### FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

January 31.—Reports from Peking state that Kweichow Province, as well as Yunan, is in rebellion.

February 4.—The Chinese Foreign Office declares that Government troops have routed and dispersed the revolutionists at several places in the southern provinces.

February 7.—The British House of Commons adopts a measure extending the life of the present Parliament, about to expire, beyond its constitutional five years.



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MR. LOUIS D. BRANDEIS

(On January 28, the President nominated Mr. Brandeis to fill the place on the Supreme Court bench made vacant by the death of Justice Lamar. Mr. Brandeis is a distinguished Boston lawyer. His services during recent years have been chiefly on the side of the public in cases involving freight rates, hours of labor, the price of gas, and savings-bank insurance. Confirmation of the appointment by the Senate has been delayed by objections raised on several grounds, and public hearings were held last month.)

#### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

January 21.—The coronation of Yuan Shih-kai as Emperor of China is indefinitely postponed owing to the uprising in the southern provinces. . . . The American Institute of International Law, composed of delegates from twenty-one American republics, makes public a declaration of the rights of nations, embodied in five fundamental principles.

#### OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

January 20.—Floods in southern California begin to subside after a six-day storm; sixteen persons lost their lives, and several thousands were rendered homeless.

January 21.—Flood conditions are experienced in northern Illinois and in Missouri, Kansas, Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Arizona, due to excessive rains and thawing of ice and snow.

January 25.—Official figures of the foreign commerce of the United States during the year 1915 show an excess of exports over imports of \$1,772,309,538 (compared with a former average of \$450,000,000).

January 28.—The United Mine Workers of America, in convention at Indianapolis, vote to ask the bituminous coal operators for wage increases of from 10 to 20 per cent.

January 28-29.—Swollen rivers and broken dams create new flood conditions in southern California, causing wide devastation and much

loss of life; floods also threaten Yuma, Ariz. (Colorado River), and the Arkansas and White River valleys.

February 2.—Two Japanese passenger steamers are sunk by collisions with other vessels; the *Daijin Maru* and 160 of its passengers and crew are lost off the Chinese coast, while the *Takata Maru* sinks without loss of life off the Newfoundland coast.

February 3.—Fire destroys the Canadian Parliament building, at Ottawa, noted for its architectural beauty. . . . Anthracite coal operators, meeting at New York City, refuse the demands for wage increases made by the miners; the differences will be discussed in conferences.

February 6.—The flood situation in southeastern Arkansas, where the Mississippi joins the Arkansas River, becomes critical.

February 9.—Representatives of 400,000 railway employees issue a statement at Cleveland, in defense of their demand for an eight-hour day.

February 13.—The Census Bureau estimates that by July 1, 1916, the population of the United States will be more than 102,000,000.

# OBITUARY

January 21.—Brig.-Gen. Louis H. Carpenter, U. S. A., retired, a veteran of the Civil and Indian wars, 76.

January 22.—Dr. John O. Reed, of the University of Michigan, author of textbooks on physics, 59.

January 23.—Charles Victor Mapes, a distinguished agricultural chemist, 79.

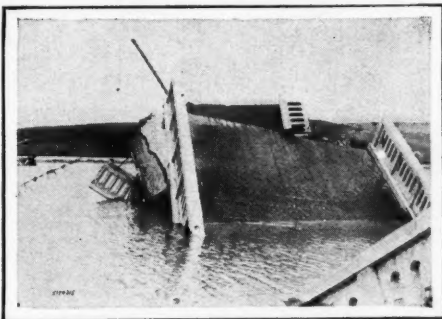
January 24.—John A. Hill, the publisher of railway and machinery trade papers, 57.

January 25.—M. Theotokis, several times Premier of Greece. . . . Gen. Thomas E. Ketcham, veteran of the Mexican and Civil wars and California pioneer, 95. . . . Samuel Selwyn Chamberlain, a widely known newspaper editor, 64.

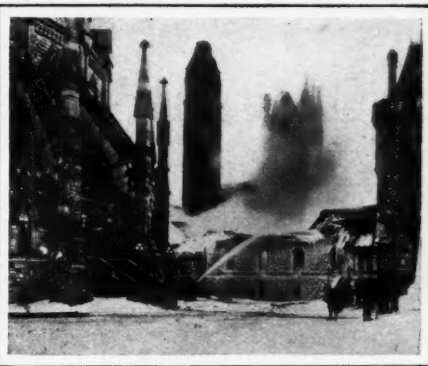
January 26.—Clarence D. Ashley, dean of the New York University Law School, 65. . . . General von Podbielski, former German Postmaster-General, 71.

January 29.—Dr. Joseph Jacobs, the noted Jewish author, historian, and editor, 61.

January 30.—Rear-Adm. Albert Smith Barker, U. S. N., retired, 73.



WRECKAGE OF A BRIDGE—A TYPICAL SCENE IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA, DURING THE DEVASTATING FLOODS OF JANUARY



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York  
THE CANADIAN HOUSE OF PARLIAMENT, AT OTTAWA, DESTROYED BY FIRE ON FEBRUARY 3

February 4.—Alexander Wilson Drake, the noted New York art editor, critic, and collector, 73. . . . Charles Carman Wakeley, the astronomer, said to have first photographed the moon through a telescope, 84. . . . Alexander Hamilton, a prominent Virginia lawyer and railway official, 64.

February 7.—Col. William P. Hepburn, of Iowa, for twenty-two years a leading member of the House of Representatives, and author of the law prohibiting railroad rebates, 82. . . . Franklin E. Brooks, formerly a Representative from Colorado, 56.

February 8.—Dr. C. Willard Hayes, for many years Chief Geologist in the United States Geological Survey, 57.

February 9.—John C. Sheehan, former Police Commissioner of New York City and one-time leader of Tammany Hall, 67. . . . Sir Charles Rivers Wilson, a prominent London financier, president of the Grand Trunk Railway of Canada, 85.

February 11.—Dr. James Lloyd Wellington, Harvard's oldest graduate (class of 1838), 98. . . . Ivan Pavlov, the Russian surgeon who won the Nobel Prize for Medicine in 1904, 67.

February 12.—John Townsend Trowbridge, the poet and author of stories for boys, 89. . . . Dr. J. Wilhelm Richard Dedekind, the noted German mathematician, 83.

February 13.—Rear-Admiral Charles E. Fox, U. S. N., retired, 65. . . . Louis Duncan, a distinguished New York electrical engineer, 53.

February 14.—Rev. William H. DeHart, D.D., for many years Stated Clerk of the Reformed Church in America, 79. . . . William Jasper Nicolls, a widely known Philadelphia civil engineer and writer of fiction, 62.

February 15.—Sir William Turner, Principal of Edinburgh University and noted British surgeon, 83. . . . Mathew White (Viscount) Ridley, chairman of the British Tariff Reform League, 41.

February 15.—Dr. Julius Nelson, professor of biology at Rutgers and State Biologist of New Jersey, 58.

February 17.—Helen F. Mears, the sculptor, 37.

# CARTOONS FROM ABROAD



CHALLENGING THE U-BOATS

Don Quixote Wilson tilting against the submarines, with his various notes spiked on his broken lance.  
From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)

THE European cartoonists continue to ring the changes on President Wilson's activities as an international letter-writer. It seems difficult for them to see him in any other character. Judging from the cartoons



UNCLE SAM'S DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS WITH GERMANY—AN ITALIAN VIEW  
From *il 420* (Florence)



PRESIDENT WILSON'S ARMY  
From *the Bystander* (London)





WILSON'S VIEW OF THE BARALONG EPISODE (AS IT APPEARS TO THE GERMANS)  
"Why should we protest? It is only German blood that blots our flag."

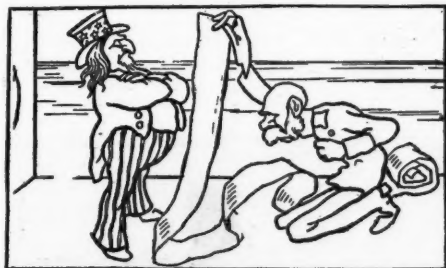
From *Jugend* © (Munich)



UNCLE SAM'S PRAYER

"Glory to God in the highest, and on earth peace and good-will to men—but first please let me earn another billion or so!" (Another cartoon reflecting the European view of Uncle Sam as a beneficiary of the war.)

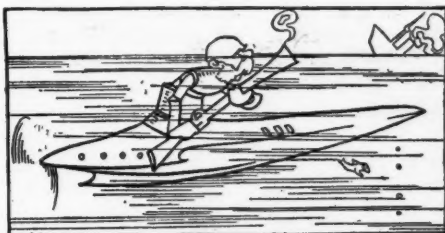
From *Die Muskete* (Vienna)



AUSTRIA'S CLEVER WORD-CHANGING

(The "sub-mission")

From *il Travaso* (Rome)



(The mission of the "sub")



THE TEUTON AS AN AMBITIOUS GLASS-BLOWER

(In 1915, Germany had blown a greatly extended sphere of conquests and allies. But what will happen in 1916?)  
From *La Campana de Gracia* (Barcelona, Spain)

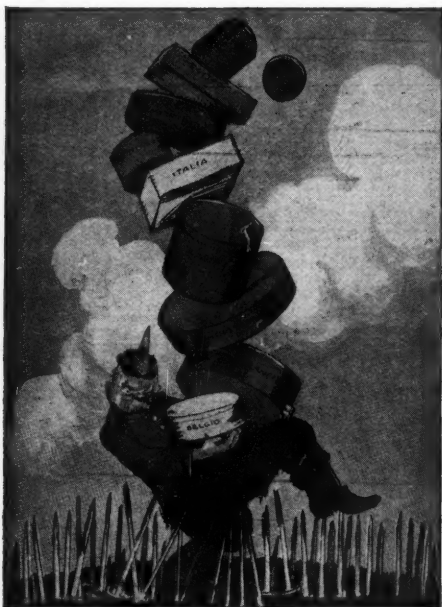




PEACE, AS GERMANY SEES IT  
(With Germany as the peace angel, in full military panoply, commanding the humbled and diminished allies)  
From *L'Asino* (Rome)



PEACE, AS WE SHALL HAVE IT  
(With a real peace spirit, standing for the integrity of the nations, general disarmament, and obligatory arbitration)  
From *L'Asino* (Rome)

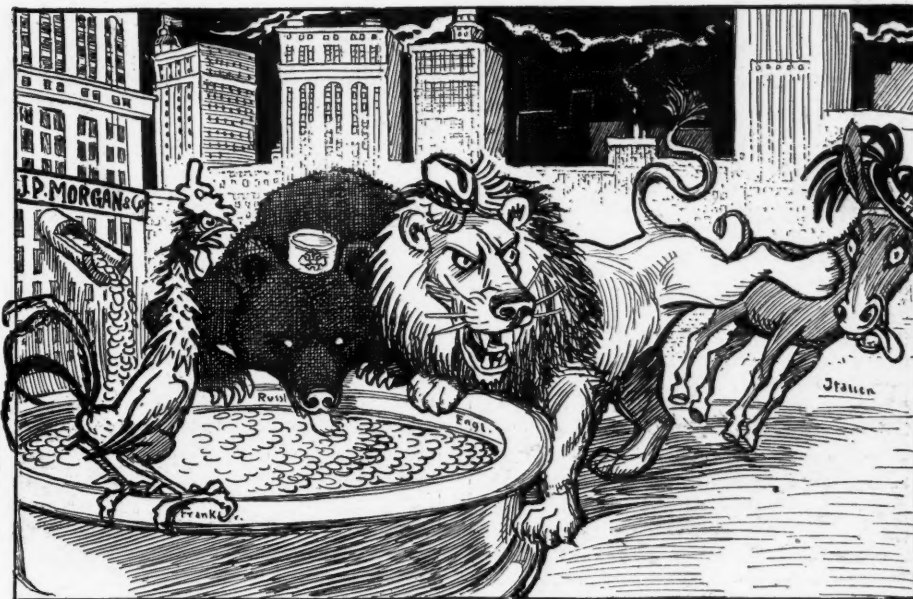


THE PRESENTS FOR THE KAISER  
(The German soldier is endeavoring to carry a towering pile of gifts for his Emperor, consisting of Belgium, France, England, Rumania, Italy, Montenegro, Serbia, Egypt, and India, threading his bloody way through fields of pointed bayonets)  
From *L'Asino* (Rome)



THE FINGER OF POPULAR ACCUSATION  
(The people of the nations of Germany, Austria, Turkey, and Bulgaria,—when they wake up—will rebel against their misgoverning and militaristic rulers)  
From *L'Asino* (Rome)

presented on the preceding page, Italian sentiment is more friendly to Uncle Sam than Dutch or English.



THE AMERICAN WATERING-TROUGH

BRITISH LION (to Italian mule): "Go away, you donkey; there's nothing for you here. This is only for us." (A German view, to the effect that England, France, and Russia are monopolizing American loans to the exclusion of their Italian ally)

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

German contempt of Italy as an antagonist is expressed in the three Berlin cartoons—"The American Watering-Trough," "A Hitch in the War Drama," and "Faithful Italy." It is a common Teutonic belief that England and France are both suspicious of

Italy's good faith in the alliance—a belief reflecting Teutonic opinion of Italy.



A HITCH IN THE WAR DRAMA

STAGE DIRECTOR GREY: "Well my brave fellow, where have you been keeping yourself? Don't you know your great Balkan scene comes on now?"

ITALY: "I don't care to play any more. I'm taking my paint off!"

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

Mch.—3



"FAITHFUL ITALY"

(France and England watch while Italy signs the compact against the making of a separate peace)

"Has he signed?" asks one.

"Yes."

"Then he must be doubly watched!"

From *Ulk* © (Berlin)



THE INTERRUPTED SLAVE SALE

KING CONSTANTINE: "Hands off, Venizelos! Greece is not a bond slave, to be sold in the market place. Greece is free!"

From *Jugend* © (Munich)



THE JUDGMENT OF THE MODERN PARIS

KING CONSTANTINE (to the Allies): "I have decided to keep my apple (neutrality)."

From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)

German, Austrian, and French viewpoints regarding the attitude of Greece are set out with distinctness on this page. Marked concern for the "freedom" of the Greek people is expressed by the German cartoon above; while Constantine's decision to remain neutral is applauded by the Austrian *Kikeriki*.

That King Constantine has been doing too much talking, for a neutral "Sphinx," is the view of one French cartoonist, while another sees in the Allied forces at Salonica the means of security for Greece.



THE SPHINX OF ATHENS

MINISTER BRIAND, OF FRANCE (to King Constantine): "Sphinx, you talk too much."

From *Le Cri de Paris* (Paris)



GUARDING GREECE

KING CONSTANTINE: "Can I sleep in tranquillity?"  
THE FRENCH SOLDIER: "Yes, my brave, it is I who will guard the house."

From *Le Rire* (Paris)





IN THE BALKANS

KING PETER: "That is the last of our kingdoms."  
KING NICHOLAS: "Yes, but all the world will applaud our heroism!"  
From *il Fischietto* (Turin)



PETER AND NICHOLAS

(The Kings of Serbia and Montenegro, driven from their lands by the Teutonic forces, sought refuge in Italy. But even here the storm will get them)  
From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)



AUSTRIA'S BALKAN APPETITE

"I'll take this little olive (Montenegro) as an appetizer!"  
From *El Imparcial* (Madrid)



PROSTRATE SERBIA

THE GERMAN VULTURE (to the Kaiser): "Watch out, William, she seems to be stirring again."  
From *Pêlè Mêle* (Paris)



MOUNT LOVCEN AS AN AUSTRIAN PRIZE

THE KAISER (to Franz-Joseph): "That mountain is a valuable possession; but hold it firmly, or it may drop on your toes!" (See also page 295.)  
From *Pasquino* (Turin)



**"ROAD OPEN"**

(The Bulgar has removed the final barrier on the great commercial highway from Antwerp to Constantinople and Bagdad. Germany's long-desired path to the East is at last free!)

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

The accomplishment of Germany's ambition for a through highway to the East was naturally a source of much satisfaction to her, and also opened the way for a blow at the Egyptian heel of the British Achilles.



**COUNT ZEPPELIN**

GERMAN AERIAL COMMANDER: "No hospitals, no cathedrals, here—pass on!"  
(Meaning that such institutions are the favorite targets of the Zeppelins)

From *Pôle Mêle* (Paris)

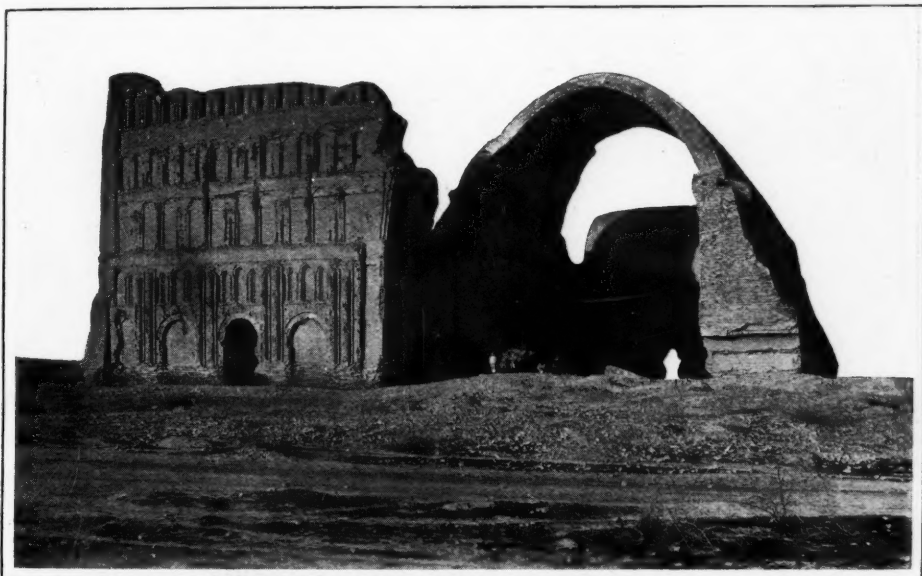


**THE HEEL OF ACHILLES**

The vulnerable part of Britain's armor is Egypt, and if we strike him hard there, we shall annihilate England in the Orient.

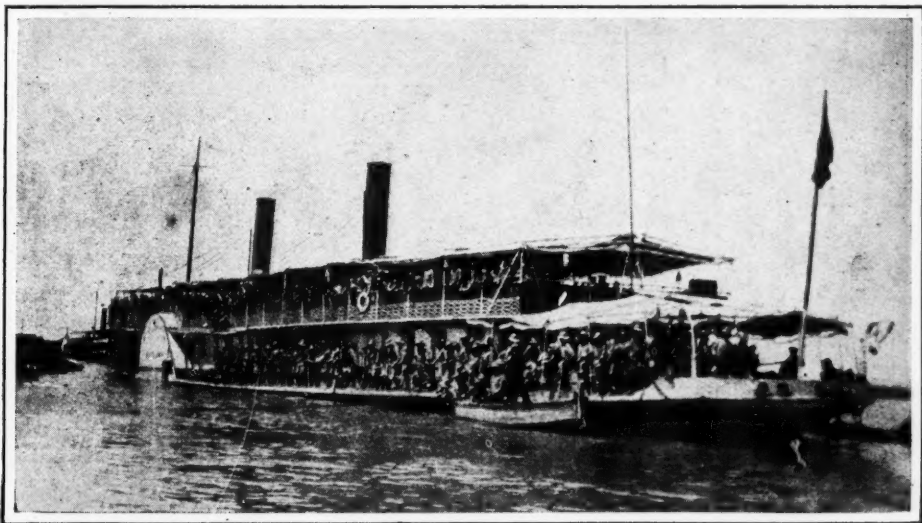
From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

# PICTURES OF WAR INTEREST



THE SASSANIAN RUINS AT CTESIPHON

(This ancient arch was in the center of the fighting ground in Mesopotamia, where the British under General Townshend engaged the Turks. According to official report, the British gunners were ordered to take especial care not to hit the old relic. The large village of Ctesiphon is on the left bank of the Tigris, about twenty-five miles below Bagdad, across the river from Seleucia, a city famed in the history of Greeks and Romans in their Asiatic empires. This ruin of the famous palace built by Chosroes I, in A.D. 550, is of burnt brick. The great hall under the arch was 163 feet long, 86 feet wide, and 95 feet high. Architects have been greatly interested in the technical character of the Parthian and Sassanian remains of important buildings in the Mesopotamian valley. Among these ruins this great hall at Ctesiphon is perhaps the best known)



Photograph by Paul Thompson

THE ADVANCE ON KUT-EL-AMARA: TRANSPORTING BRITISH TROOPS UP THE TIGRIS



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

#### ALBANIAN CHIEFS MEETING TO DECLARE WAR ON AUSTRIA

(The photograph shows an assemblage of Albanian chiefs who, under the leadership of Essad Pasha, declared war against Austria in aid of Montenegro)



#### THE SERBIAN RETIREMENT THROUGH ALBANIA

(General Putnik, in a sedan chair made by his soldiers, and accompanied by the Serbian general staff, is crossing the White Drin, by the picturesque bridge of the Viziers)

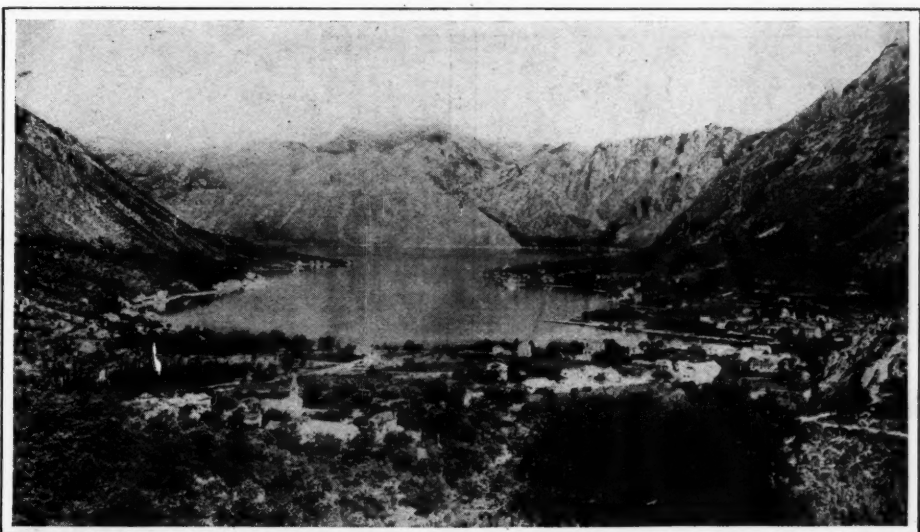




© International News Service, New York

**KING NICHOLAS OF MONTENEGRO FINDS SAFE REFUGE IN FRANCE**

(This photograph of the King, with his family and suite, was taken at Lyons on the arrival of the royal party after fleeing from Montenegro)



© International News Service, New York

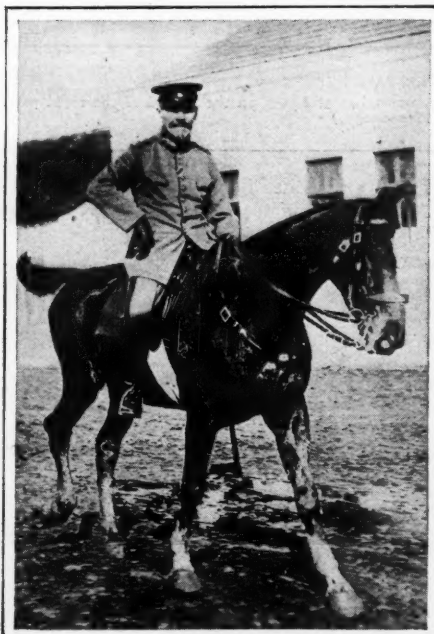
**THE GULF OF CATTARO, WITH THE FRONTIER MOUNTAINS OF MONTENEGRO. (MOUNT LOVCEN IN CENTER)**  
(An Austrian expedition from the Gulf of Cattaro captured Mount Lovcen in January, and soon afterward conquered the entire Montenegrin kingdom)



© International News Service, New York

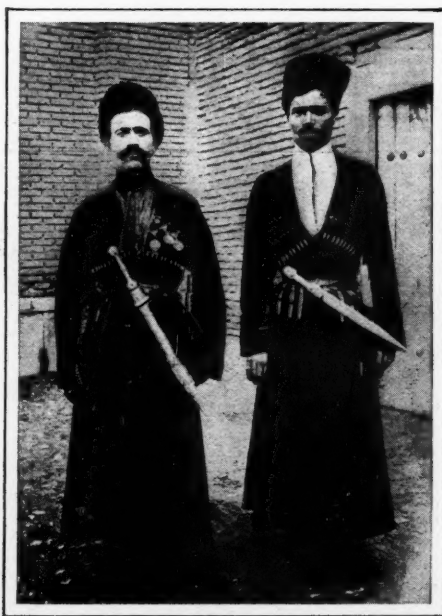
**GENERAL VON KOVESS, THE AUSTRIAN COMMANDER IN THE MONTENEGRIN CAMPAIGN**

(General Kovess is wearing the iron cross presented to him by the Kaiser for his victories over the Montenegrins)



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

**GENERAL VON GALLWITZ, WHO, IT IS REPORTED, WILL BE INTRUSTED WITH THE LEADERSHIP OF THE TURCO-BULGARIAN ATTACK ON THE ALLIES AT SALONICA**



© International News Service, New York

**PERSIAN CAVALRY OFFICERS IN THEIR PICTURESQUE COSTUMES**

(Persia is not one of the countries at war, but large numbers of her soldiers are fighting both with and against the Russian armies engaged in clearing north-western Persia of Turkish troops)



© American Press Association, New York

A FRENCH SIEGE GUN IN ACTION NEAR ARRAS

(The gunners can be seen holding their hands to their ears during the terrific explosion)



A CORNER OF THE FRENCH RED CROSS DOG KENNELS

(These kennels are built with exceeding care. They are bomb-proof and are made as comfortable as possible for the canine assistants of the army)

# "BANKRUPT DIPLOMACY"

A REVIEW OF THE FOREIGN POLICIES OF THE WILSON ADMINISTRATION

AN ADDRESS BY ELIHU ROOT

[Elihu Root has two reputations to sustain. He is the leading spokesman of the Republican party. He is also the foremost authority upon America's foreign relations. He had said little or nothing upon great current issues since he left the Senate just a year ago. But on February 15 he delivered a frank and carefully prepared address at a great convention of New York State Republicans. The principal parts of that address, as reviewing President Wilson's foreign policies and diplomacy, are presented herewith. Those portions of his speech that are devoted principally to domestic questions, such as the Democratic party's tariff and financial policies, are referred to in our editorial paragraphs, but not reprinted in the following pages.—THE EDITOR.]

FOR the first time within the memory of men now living, the international relations of the United States, long deemed of trifling consequence, are recognized as vital. How can this nation, which loves peace and intends justice, avoid the curse of militarism and at the same time preserve its independence, defend its territory, protect the lives and liberty and property of its citizens? How can we prevent the same principles of action, the same policies of conduct, the same forces of military power which are exhibited in Europe from laying hold upon the vast territory and practically undefended wealth of the new world? Can we expect immunity? Can we command immunity? . . .

When a President and Secretary of State have been lawfully established in office the power of initiative in foreign affairs rests with them. The nation is in their hands. Theirs is the authority and theirs the duty to adopt and act upon policies, subject to such laws as Congress may enact within constitutional limits. Parliamentary opposition can take no affirmative step, can accomplish no affirmative action. The expression of public opinion can do nothing except as it produces an influence upon the minds of those officers who have the lawful power to conduct our foreign relations. Their policy is the country's policy, because it is they who are authorized to act for the country.

While they are working out their policy all opposition, all criticism, all condemnation, are at the risk of weakening the case of one's own country and frustrating the efforts of its lawful representatives to succeed in what they are seeking to accomplish for the country's benefit. An American should wish the representatives of his country to succeed,

whatever may be their party, unless there be wrongdoing against conscience. However much he may doubt the wisdom of their course, he should help them where he can and refrain from placing obstacles in their way. But when the President and Secretary of State have acted, and seek a new grant of power, they and the party which is responsible for them must account for their use of power to the people from whom it came, and the people must pass judgment upon them, and then full and frank public discussion becomes the citizen's duty.

## RIGHTS AND DUTIES IN MEXICO

The United States had rights and duties in Mexico. More than forty thousand of our citizens had sought their fortunes and made their homes there. A thousand millions of American capital had been invested in that rich and productive country, and millions of income from these enterprises were annually returned to the United States, not merely for the benefit of the investors, but for the enrichment of our whole country and all its production and enterprise. But revolution had come, and factional warfare was rife. Americans had been murdered, American property had been wantonly destroyed, the lives and property of all Americans in Mexico were in danger.

That was the situation when Mr. Wilson became President in March, 1913. His duty then was plain. It was, first, to use his powers as President to secure protection for the lives and property of Americans in Mexico and to require that the rules of law and stipulations of treaties should be observed by Mexico towards the United States and its citizens. His duty was, second, as the head



of a foreign power, to respect the independence of Mexico, to refrain from all interference with her internal affairs, from all attempt at dominance except as he was justified by the law of nations for the protection of American rights.

The President of the United States failed to observe either of those duties. He deliberately abandoned them both and followed an entirely different and inconsistent purpose. He intervened in Mexico to aid one faction in civil strife against another. He undertook to pull down Huerta and set Carranza up in his place. Huerta was in possession. He claimed to be the constitutional President of Mexico. He certainly was the *de facto* President of Mexico. Rightly or wrongly, good or bad, he was there. From the north Carranza and a group of independent chieftains were endeavoring to pull down the power of Huerta. President Wilson took sides with them in pulling down that power. In August, 1913, through Mr. John Lind, he presented to Huerta a communication which was in substance a demand that Huerta should retire permanently from the government of Mexico. When Huerta refused, the power of the United States was applied to turn him out. Foreign nations were induced to refuse to his government the loans of money necessary to repair the ravages of war and establish order. Arms and munitions of war were freely furnished to the Northern forces and withheld from Huerta. Finally the President sent our army and navy to invade Mexico and capture its great seaport, Vera Cruz, and hold it and throttle Mexican commerce until Huerta fell.

#### INTERVENTION WITH WRONG MOTIVES

The Government of the United States intervened in Mexico to control the internal affairs of that independent country and to enforce the will of the American President in those affairs by threat, by economic pressure, and by force of arms. Upon what claim of right did this intervention proceed? Not to secure respect for American rights; not to protect the lives or property of our citizens; not to assert the laws of nations; not to compel observance of the law of humanity. On the contrary, Huerta's was the only power in Mexico to which appeal could be made for protection of life or property. That was the only power which in fact did protect either American or European or Mexican. It was only within the territory where Huerta ruled that comparative peace

and order prevailed. The territory over which the armed power of Carranza and Villa and their associates extended was the theater of the most appalling crimes.

Bands of robbers roved the country with unbridled license. Americans and Mexicans alike were at their mercy, and American men were murdered and American women were outraged with impunity. Thousands were reduced to poverty by the wanton destruction of the industries through which they lived. The payment of blackmail was the only protection of property against burnings and robbery. No one in authority could or would give protection or redress. It had become perfectly plain that the terms upon which both Carranza and Villa held their supporters were unrestricted opportunity and license for murder, robbery, and lust.

Yet the Government of the United States ignored, condoned, the murder of American men and the rape of American women and destruction of American property and insult to American officers and defilement of the American flag, and joined itself to the men who were guilty of all these things to pull down the power of Huerta. Why? The President himself has told us. It was because he adjudged Huerta to be a usurper; because he deemed that the common people of Mexico ought to have greater participation in government and share in the land; and he believed that Carranza and Villa would give them these things. We must all sympathize with these sentiments, but there is nothing more dangerous than misplaced sentiment. Of all men in this world, the man who had vested in him the executive power of the United States was least at liberty to sit in judgment of his own motion upon the title of a claimant to the Mexican presidency or to reform the land laws of Mexico.

The results of this interference were most unfortunate. If our Government had sent an armed force into Mexico to protect American life and honor we might have been opposed, but we should have been understood and respected by the people of Mexico, because they would have realized that we were acting within our international rights and performing a nation's duty for the protection of its own people; but when the President sent an armed force into Mexico to determine the Mexican presidential succession he created resentment and distrust of motives among all classes and sections of the Mexican people. When our army landed at Vera Cruz, Carranza himself, who was to be the chief bene-

fiary of the act, publicly protested against it. So strong was the resentment that he could not have kept his followers otherwise. When Huerta had fallen the new government which for the day had succeeded to his place peremptorily demanded the withdrawal of the American troops. The universal sentiment of Mexicans required that peremptory demand, and the troops were withdrawn. Still worse than that, the taking of Vera Cruz destroyed confidence in the sincerity of the American Government in Mexico because every intelligent man in Mexico believed that the avowed reason for the act was not the real reason. The avowed purpose was to compel a salute to the American flag.

THE SEIZURE OF VERA CRUZ: WHAT WAS ITS  
REAL PURPOSE?

I will state the circumstances: On the 9th of April, 1914, a boat's crew from the *Dolphin* landed at a wharf in Tampico to take off supplies. The use of that wharf had been prohibited, and the Mexican officer in charge of the wharf put the crew under arrest, but a higher officer ordered him to hold the boat's crew at the wharf and await instructions. Within an hour and a half the crew was set free. No injury or indignity was suffered except the fact of the arrest. Immediate amends were made. The Mexican officer in command at Tampico apologized; General Huerta's government apologized; the officer who made the arrest was himself arrested and his punishment promised. The admiral in command of our fleet at Tampico demanded more public amends through a salute to our flag, but there ensued a discussion as to the facts and as to the character of the salute which the circumstances demanded, the number of guns, and how, if at all, the salute was to be returned.

While that discussion was pending and avowedly because of that incident the American Government presented a twenty-four-hour ultimatum and landed an armed force and captured the City of Vera Cruz. Three hundred Mexicans were reported killed; seventeen United States Marines were killed and many were wounded. At that very time Mr. Bryan, with the President's approval, was signing treaties with half the world, agreeing that if any controversy should arise it should be submitted to a joint commission and no action should be taken until after a full year had elapsed. This controversy, slight as it was, arose on the ninth of April, and on the twenty-first of the same month Vera Cruz was taken. Several times the

troops of Carranza and Villa had arrested and imprisoned American consular officers and torn down the American flags from the consulates and trampled them in the mire, with indescribable indignities. The proofs were in our hands and no attention was paid to them. Many times soldiers of the United States, in uniform, on duty, had been shot and killed or wounded across the border by soldiers of Carranza and Villa. More than fifty of them have been killed in this way and no attention has been paid to it. The demand of a salute to the flag was never heard of again after Vera Cruz was captured.

There is not an intelligent man in Mexico who believes that the dispute about the salute was the real reason for the capture of Vera Cruz. Is there one here who doubts that the alleged cause was but a pretext and that the real cause was the purpose to turn Huerta out of office? The people of Mexico, who saw their unoffending city captured by force of arms, three hundred of its people slain, their soil violated, a foreign flag floating over their great seaport, upon what they felt to be a false pretense, were misled into imputing a more sinister purpose still,—to secure control of Mexico for the United States; and they believed that when the American troops departed that purpose was abandoned through fear.

With the occupation of Vera Cruz the moral power of the United States in Mexico ended. We were then and we are now hated for what we did to Mexico, and we were then and we are now despised for our feeble and irresolute failure to protect the lives and rights of our citizens. No flag is so dishonored and no citizenship so little worth the claiming in Mexico as ours. And that is why we have failed in Mexico.

Incredible as it seems, Huerta had been turned out by the assistance of the American Government without any guaranties from the men who were to be set up in his place, and so the murdering and burning and ravishing have gone on to this day. After Huerta had fallen and the Vera Cruz expedition had been withdrawn, President Wilson announced that no one was entitled to interfere in the affairs of Mexico; that she was entitled to settle them herself. He disclaims all responsibility for what happens in Mexico and contents himself with a policy of "watchful waiting." But who can interfere in a quarrel and help some contestants and destroy others and then absolve himself from responsibility for the results? . . .

For the death and outrage, the suffering

and ruin of our own brethren, the hatred and contempt for our country, and the dishonor of our name in that land, the Administration at Washington shares responsibility with the inhuman brutes with whom it made common cause.

# FUNDAMENTAL ERRORS IN THE POLICY TOWARDS EUROPE

When we turn to the Administration's conduct of foreign affairs incident to the great war in Europe we cannot fail to perceive that there is much dissatisfaction among Americans. Some are dissatisfied for specific reasons, some with a vague impression that our diplomacy has been inadequate. Dissatisfaction is not in itself ground for condemnation. . . .

The situation created by the war has been difficult and trying. Much of the correspondence of the State Department, especially since Mr. Lansing took charge, has been characterized by accurate learning and skilful statement of specific American rights. Everyone in the performance of new and unprecedented duties is entitled to generous allowance for unavoidable shortcomings and errors. No one should be held to the accomplishment of the impossible. The question whether dissatisfaction is just or unjust is to be determined upon an examination of the great lines of policy which have been followed and upon considering whether the emergencies of the time have been met with foresight, wisdom and decisive courage.

A study of the Administration's policy towards Europe since July, 1914, reveals three fundamental errors. First, the lack of foresight to make timely provision for backing up American diplomacy by actual or assured military and naval force. Second, the forfeiture of the world's respect for our assertion of rights by pursuing the policy of making threats and failing to make them good. Third, a loss of the moral forces of the civilized world through failure to truly interpret to the world the spirit of the American democracy in its attitude towards the terrible events which accompanied the early stages of the war.

First, as to power.

When the war in Europe began, free, peaceable little Switzerland instantly mobilized upon her frontier a great army of trained citizen soldiers. Sturdy little Holland did the same, and, standing within the very sound of the guns, both have kept their territory and their independence inviolate. Nobody has run over them, because they made

it apparent that the cost would be too great.

Great, peaceable America was farther removed from the conflict, but her trade and her citizens traveled on every sea. Ordinary knowledge of history,—of our own history during the Napoleonic Wars,—made it plain that in that conflict neutral rights would be worthless unless powerfully maintained. . . .

Ordinary practical sense in the conduct of affairs demanded that such steps should be taken that behind the peaceable assertion of our country's rights, its independence and its honor, should stand power, manifest and available, warning the whole world that it would cost too much to press aggression too far. The Democratic Government at Washington did not see it. Others saw it and their opinions found voice. Mr. Gardner urged it; Mr. Lodge urged it; Mr. Stimson urged it; Mr. Roosevelt urged it; but their argument and urgency were ascribed to political motives; and the President described them with a sneer as being nervous and excited.

But the warning voices would not be stilled. The opinion that we ought no longer to remain defenseless became public opinion. Its expression grew more general and insistent, and finally the President, not leading, but following, has shifted his ground, has reversed his position, and asks the country to prepare against war. God grant that he be not too late. But the Democratic party has not shifted its ground. A large part of its members in Congress are endeavoring now to sidetrack the movement for national preparedness; to muddle it by amendment and turn it into channels which will produce the least possible result in the increase of national power of defense.

What sense of effectiveness in this effort can we gather from the presence of Josephus Daniels at the most critical post of all,—the head of the Navy Department; when we see that where preparation has been possible it has not been made; when we see that construction of warships already authorized has not been pressed, and in some cases after long delay has not even been begun. . . .

# BELLIGERENT EXPRESSION, BUT NO ACTION

As to the policy of threatening words without deeds.

When Germany gave notice of her purpose to sink merchant vessels on the high seas without safeguarding the lives of innocent passengers, our Government replied on the 10th of February, one year ago, in the following words:

The Government of the United States views those possibilities with such grave concern that it feels it to be its privilege, and indeed its duty in the circumstances, to request the Imperial German Government to consider before action is taken the critical situation in respect of the relations between this country and Germany which might arise were the German naval forces, in carrying out the policy foreshadowed in the Admiralty's proclamation, to destroy any merchant vessel of the United States or cause the death of American citizens.

If such a deplorable situation should arise, the Imperial German Government can readily appreciate that the Government of the United States would be constrained to hold the Imperial German Government to a strict accountability for such acts of their naval authorities and to take any steps it might be necessary to take to safeguard American lives and property and to secure to American citizens the full enjoyment of their acknowledged rights on the high seas.

By all the usages and traditions of diplomatic intercourse those words meant action. They informed Germany in unmistakable terms that in attacking and sinking vessels of the United States and in destroying the lives of American citizens lawfully traveling upon merchant vessels of other countries, she would act at her peril. . . .

On the 7th of May, the *Lusitania* was torpedoed and sunk by a German submarine, and more than one hundred Americans and eleven hundred other non-combatants were drowned. The very thing which our Government had warned Germany she must not do, Germany did of set purpose and in the most contemptuous and shocking way.

Then, when all America was stirred to the depths, our Government addressed another note to Germany. It repeated its assertion of American rights, and renewed its bold declaration of purpose. It declared again that the American Government "must hold the Imperial German Government to a strict accountability for any infringement of those rights, intentional or incidental," and it declared that it would not "omit any word or any act necessary to the performance of its sacred duty of maintaining the rights of the United States and its citizens and of safeguarding their free exercise and enjoyment."

Still nothing was done, and a long and technical correspondence ensued; haggling over petty questions of detail, every American note growing less and less strong and peremptory. . . . The later correspondence has been conducted by our State Department with dignity, but it has been futile. An admission of liability for damages has been secured, but the time for real protection to American rights has long since passed. Our Govern-

ment undertook one year ago to prevent the destruction of American life by submarine attack, and now that the attempt has failed and our citizens are long since dead and the system of attack has fallen of its own weight, there is small advantage in discussing whether we shall or shall not have an admission that it was unlawful to kill them. . . .

Measured and restrained expression, backed to the full by serious purpose, is strong and respected. Extreme and belligerent expression, unsupported by resolution, is weak and without effect. No man should draw a pistol who dares not shoot. The government that shakes its fist first and its finger afterwards falls into contempt. Our diplomacy has lost its authority and influence because we have been brave in words and irresolute in action. Men may say that the words of our diplomatic notes were justified; men may say that our inaction was justified; but no man can say that both our words and our inaction were wise and creditable.

#### FAILURE TO SPEAK CONCERNING BELGIUM

I have said that this Government lost the moral forces of the world by not truly interpreting the spirit of the American democracy.

The American democracy stands for something more than beef and cotton and grain and manufactures; stands for something that cannot be measured by rates of exchange, and does not rise or fall with the balance of trade. The American people achieved liberty and schooled themselves to the service of justice before they acquired wealth, and they value their country's liberty and justice above all their pride of possession. . . .

To this people, the invasion of Belgium brought a shock of amazement and horror. The people of Belgium were peaceable, industrious, law abiding, self governing, and free. They had no quarrel with anyone on earth. They were attacked by overwhelming military power; their country was devastated by fire and sword; they were slain by tens of thousands; their independence was destroyed and their liberty was subjected to the rule of an invader, for no other cause than that they defended their admitted rights. There was no question of fact; there was no question of law; there was not a plausible pretense of any other cause. The admitted rights of Belgium stood in the way of a mightier nation's purpose; and Belgium was crushed. When the true nature of these events was realized, the people of the United States did not hesitate in their feel-



ing or in their judgment. Deepest sympathy with down-trodden Belgium and stern condemnation of the invader were practically universal. . . .

The American people were entitled not merely to feel but to speak concerning the wrong done to Belgium. It was not like interference in the internal affairs of Mexico or any other nation, for this was an international wrong. The law protecting Belgium which was violated was our law and the law of every other civilized country. For generations we had been urging on and helping in its development and establishment.

. . . We had bound ourselves by it; we had regulated our conduct by it; and we were entitled to have other nations observe it. . . .

Yet the American Government acquiesced in the treatment of Belgium and the destruction of the law of nations. Without one word of objection or dissent to the repudiation of law or the breach of our treaty or the violation of justice and humanity in the treatment of Belgium, our Government enjoined upon the people of the United States an indiscriminating and all-embracing neutrality, and the President admonished the people that they must be neutral in all respects in act and word and thought and sentiment. We were to be not merely neutral as to the quarrels of Europe, but neutral as to the treatment of Belgium; neutral between right and wrong; neutral between justice and injustice; neutral between humanity and cruelty; neutral between liberty and oppression. . . .

It was not necessary that the United States should go to war in defense of the violated law. A single official expression by the Government of the United States, a single sentence denying assent and recording disapproval of what Germany did in Belgium would have given to the people of America that leadership to which they were entitled in their earnest groping for the light. It would have ranged behind American leadership the conscience and morality of the neutral world. It would have brought to American diplomacy the respect and strength of loyalty to a great cause. . . .

#### CONSEQUENCES OF MISTAKEN POLICIES

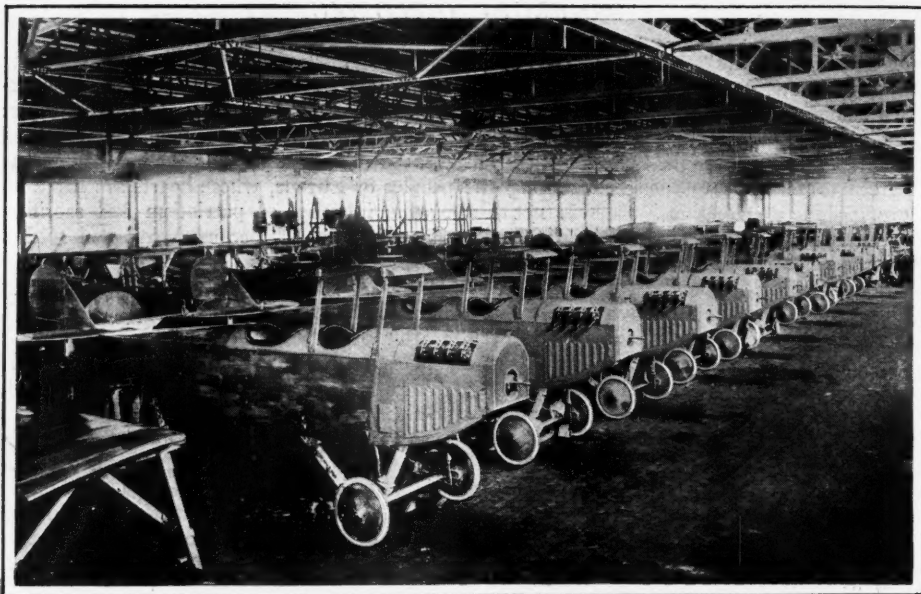
The American Government could not really have approved the treatment of Belgium, but under a mistaken policy it shrank from speaking the truth. That vital error has carried into every effort of our diplomacy the weakness of a false position. Every note of remonstrance against interference

with trade, or even against the destruction of life, has been projected against the background of an abandonment of the principles for which America once stood, and has been weakened by the popular feeling among the peoples of Europe, whose hearts are lifted up by the impulses of patriotism and sacrifice, that America has become weak and sordid.

Such policies as I have described are doubly dangerous in their effect upon foreign nations and in their effect at home. It is a matter of universal experience that a weak and apprehensive treatment of foreign affairs invites encroachments upon rights and leads to situations in which it is difficult to prevent war, while a firm and frank policy at the outset prevents difficult situations from arising and tends most strongly to preserve peace. On the other hand, if a government is to be strong in its diplomacy, its own people must be ranged in its support by leadership of opinion in a national cause worthy to awaken their patriotism and devotion.

We have not been following the path of peace. We have been blindly stumbling along the road that, continued, will lead to inevitable war. Our diplomacy has dealt with symptoms and ignored causes. The great decisive question upon which our peace depends is the question whether the rule of action applied to Belgium is to be tolerated. If it is tolerated by the civilized world, this nation will have to fight for its life. There will be no escape. That is the critical point of defense for the peace of America.

When our Government failed to tell the truth about Belgium, it lost the opportunity for leadership of the moral sense of the American people, and it lost the power which a knowledge of that leadership and a sympathetic response from the moral sense of the world would have given to our diplomacy. When our Government failed to make any provision whatever for defending its rights in case they should be trampled upon, it lost the power which a belief in its readiness and will to maintain its rights would have given to its diplomatic representatives. When our Government gave notice to Germany that it would destroy American lives and American ships at its peril, our words, which would have been potent if sustained by adequate preparation to make them good, and by the prestige and authority of the moral leadership of a great people in a great cause, were treated with a contempt which should have been foreseen; and when our Government failed to make those words good, its diplomacy was bankrupt.



AT THE CURTISS SHOPS; 160-H. P. BIPLANES READY FOR SHIPMENT

(Before the war it would have been impossible to make such a photograph of Curtiss machines. In this factory aeroplanes are turned out by the methods employed in automobile plants. The whole factory is the result of the European war demand for flying-machines)

# THE AEROPLANE OF TO-DAY

WHAT THE WAR HAS DONE FOR ITS DEVELOPMENT

BY WALDEMAR KAEMPFERT

✓  
**R**AIL as we may at the standing armies of Europe, there would be no healthy aeroplane industry to-day without their support. French and German aeroplane manufacturers would have been haled to the bankruptcy courts long ago had it not been for the orders placed by governments always more or less on the verge of war and always jealously matching one another in military strength and equipment.

If the United States of America has less than thirty army aeroplanes, of which not more than twelve are fit for active service at the present moment, it is the fault of Congress. We, too, might have had an industry if the army were permitted to exercise its discretion. When the war came and military orders poured in upon us so fast that they could not be filled, a real American industry sprang into being. Neither European nor American builders of flying machines could hope to prosper long by collecting money from the promoters of races and county fairs.

In Europe the great change came in 1911. Then it was that Italy waged war on Turkey and sent to the Tripolitan front three or four French exhibition machines bought half-heartedly on the recommendation of a few imaginative theorists who believed that scouting might be done on wings more effectively than on horseback. Up to that time a regiment of Italian military conservatives had spilled much ink in warning army officers against putting too much trust in aerial reconnaissance as a supplement to cavalry scouting. It was thought unlikely that the low-flying aeroplanes which had given so good an account of themselves in the annual maneuvers of the French and German armies could escape destruction from rifle and artillery fire. The Italian experiment with the aeroplane in actual warfare had great importance.

The entire military world watched that Tripolitan campaign with breathless interest. What was actually accomplished by air scouts the Italians never completely revealed. It was significant that Italy rapidly increased

her aerial force and began to build her own machines. French and German newspapers at once prodded their governments into activity. Money for aeroplane construction was not forthcoming fast enough, and so public subscriptions on a huge scale were inaugurated. Such was the popular enthusiasm that sums running into millions of francs and marks were raised. Thus was the aeroplane industry of Europe born.

#### RISE OF THE INDUSTRY

The boom was at its height a year before the outbreak of war. When governments

biplane, but now he turns out one machine a day. No one knows exactly how many aeroplanes have been exported from this country, nor how much they are worth. For the six months ending July, 1915, four million dollars' worth of aeronautic material was furnished by this country. At that rate nearly

ten million dollars must have poured into American coffers up to the present time. And we might earn even more if we had been prepared for the deluge of commissions.

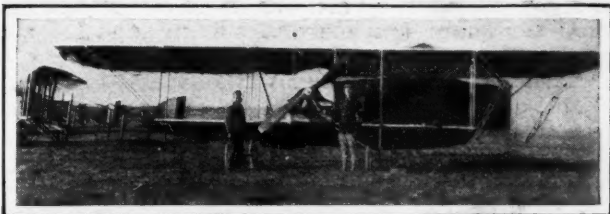
#### FIVE THOUSAND MACHINES EMPLOYED IN THE WAR

How many aeroplanes are required by all the armies in the present war no one can tell. Three years ago Germany appropriated \$35,000,000 to be spent in five years on aeronautics. The budgets of her rivals were not much less.

There are certainly no fewer than 5000 machines in actual use in the war, and such is the wastage of battle that their flying life is not longer than a fortnight. Very few aeroplanes are now in service which were flying at the outbreak of war. For all we know it may be necessary to build 50,000 machines

began to spend the millions which they had appropriated and which had been collected by public subscription, a real aeroplane industry was established. With dividends assured factories were more willing than before to spend money on laboratory research and to improve designs. The building of aeroplanes in Europe and America goes on with a frenzy which may well be likened to the rush in a newly discovered gold field. In the effort to meet the demand we are even building machines under canvas. Curtiss has increased his force of employees from 150 men to 2500. He has adopted automobile methods of manufacture. Once it took him three weeks to build a

Mch.—4



Photograph by Medem News Service

A FRENCH CAUDRON BIPLANE—A SPORTING TYPE WHICH HAS PROVED POPULAR IN THE FRENCH ARMY



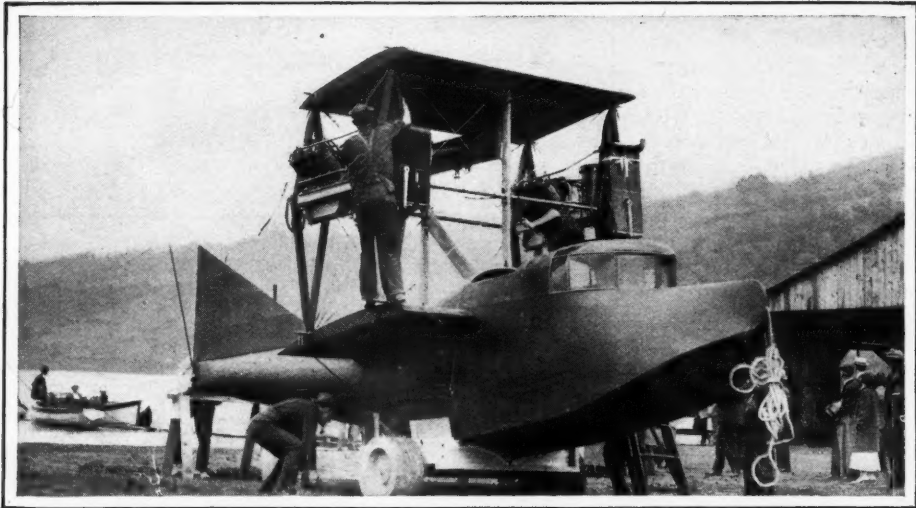
CURTISS MILITARY TRACTOR IN FLIGHT. ITS 160-HORSEPOWER MOTOR WILL ENABLE IT TO ATTAIN A SPEED OF ABOUT 100 MILES AN HOUR



© Boston Photo News Co.

A STURTEVANT MACHINE WHICH SHOWS HOW AN AMERICAN DESIGNER HAS PROFITED BY EUROPEAN WAR EXPERIENCE

(Separate bodies are provided for two guns and for the power plant, so as to cut down air resistance)



© Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE FAMOUS "AMERICA" WHICH GLENN H. CURTISS BUILT FOR THE TRANS-ATLANTIC FLIGHT WHICH THE WAR MADE IMPOSSIBLE

(The *America* was afterward sold to Great Britain. Several sister craft following the same lines have likewise been disposed of to Great Britain. The type has proven extremely serviceable for work in the English Channel and in the North Sea in attacking submarines)

a year to repair the ravages of war. No wonder that the Royal Aircraft factory alone employs 7000 men and that there are 16,000 mechanics and engineers engaged in making aeroplanes and motors in England alone; no wonder that the aeroplane industry is feverishly active and prosperous all over the world; no wonder that the aeroplane boom of 1913 has been completely eclipsed by the war prosperity of 1915 and 1916.

#### IMPROVEMENTS IN DESIGN

To the designer of aeroplanes the war has meant as much as to the factory proprietor. The old stock sporting models will not answer over the battlefield. War has crystallized the views of strategists. The scientist and his wind tunnel command more respect now; he alone can smooth out body lines intelligently, reduce the area of wind-resisting struts and wires, and improve wing shapes. When the war is over we shall find that it has brought about real progress.

Even now we have evidence of that in the long-distance flights undertaken by daring officers. Two months before the war it was taken as a matter of course that half the numerous machines entered in a German overland endurance contest should come to grief before reaching their destination. Now flocks of forty and fifty aeroplanes fly for hours across Alsace and Baden in order to bombard Karlsruhe, Freiburg, or some

German stronghold and return safely for the most part; the missing have been brought down by cannon or attacking machines, and not by defective parts.

In the last Balkan war the hired pilots of the belligerents never dared to attack each other, from which it was concluded by military officers that flying was dangerous enough in itself without heightening its terrors by the aid of machine-guns. Yet now we read of daily encounters in the air. Chavez met a ghastly death after crossing the Alps. Today a score of Austrian officers fly unconcerned over the Dolomites without the slightest chance of making an emergency landing. Aeroplanes must have improved wonderfully if the ordinary perils of flying can be so blithely ignored.

Still, marked as the changes must be in design, the aeroplane of 1916 is not mechanically different from the aeroplane of 1906.

The improvements made in machines have been architectural rather than mechanical in character. When pilots found out how to cope with swirling eddies and swift streams they realized what makeshift contrivances the first machines were. The dozen who died because their wings collapsed in a gust drove home the lesson of our tragic incompetence, and the men who have deliberately strained their planes to the breaking point by dropping a mile in a vertical line and straightening out their course at the end of the drop exhibited the weak points of early aeroplanes



and taught the scientific designer what never old machine raked the air like a harrow. could have been learned in artificial tests.

The hazards of flying, then, have brought about important improvements but no radical departure from the early Wright models. In actual wing constructions significant advances have been made. The effect on planes of certain cross sections or profiles has been painstakingly studied in the laboratory, so that the builder of flying machines may now select a particular wing section to meet a definite requirement. The old flying machines had planes covered with flabby canvas, which were distorted under pressure and which constituted dangerous, unrecognized defects. In modern machines the wings are so strong that they rarely break; their surface is as smooth as glass and as tight as a drumhead. Countless shapes and arrangements of wings have been proposed, and few have been either definitely accepted or rejected. All this variety is inconsequential. The aeroplane will always be a mechanical compromise; what is gained in one way is lost in another.

#### THE BOAT BODY

The one unmistakable improvement which has been adopted is a boat-like body in which the aviator now sits. No longer does he perch on the lower wing of a biplane and watch the earth drift back between his legs. The boat body was adopted not to spare his emotions or shield his body from the wind, but to enable the machine to plow on with the least possible disturbance of the air. Each plane, each strut, each projection leaves a wake of its own. A single wake, which marks the easy flowing together of air behind a single body, is better. The modern aeroplane approaches this ideal; the

That change in form we owe to the scientist and his laboratory. He measured the resisting effect of wires vibrating in the wind, of braces, of fuel tanks, of radiators, and of human legs and arms. He found that the sum total was enormous. The aeroplane builder has been compelled to abandon his cherished idea that to obtain speed as little surface and bulk as possible should be exposed. He has learned from the scientist that a large correctly designed bulk, enclosing passengers, engines, steering wheels and tanks, slips through the air more easily than an aggregation of small irregular shapes, widely scattered.

#### GREATER SPEED, GREATER SAFETY

More tangible than these improvements is the trebled and quadrupled power of the motor. That means not only speeds well over 100 miles an hour—vitally necessary to a military scout—but, paradoxically enough, safety. Almost any weather can be braved with 150 horsepower. The *Mauretania* buffets her way at twenty-five knots in the teeth of a gale, because of the horsepower of her engines. • A military flying machine is a miniature *Mauretania* of the air. Aviators once anxiously studied the clouds and the weather vane before they would venture up; now they fly in all winds.

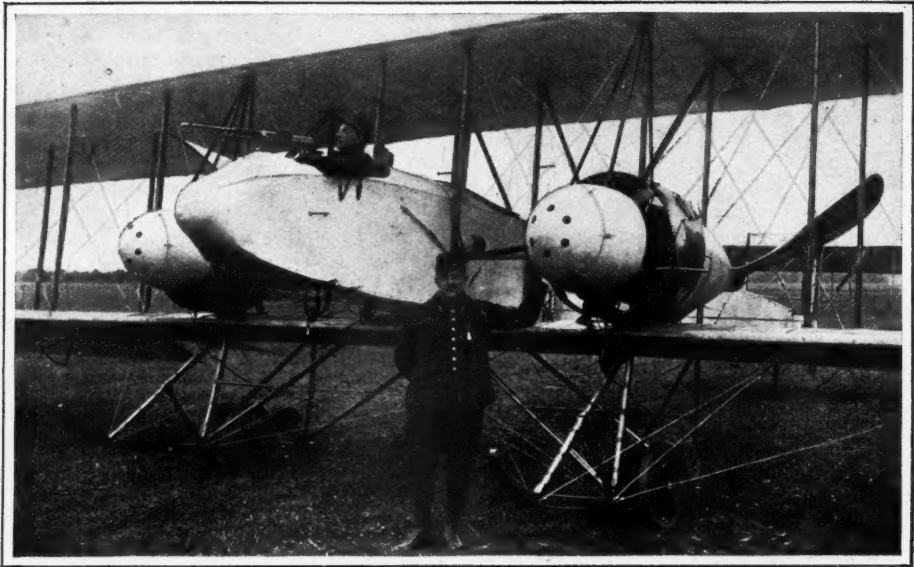
Military exigencies demand more than one type of aeroplane. A combat in the air is won by quick maneuvering. A small, high-powered machine, preferably a monoplane, fills the requirements. The famous German Fokker is the most prominent of the class. This machine and others like it (the French Morane, for example) are wasps in smallness, speed, and maneuvering ability.



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

#### THE FAMOUS SIKORSKY BIPLANE WHICH HAS FLOWN FOR HOURS WITH SIXTEEN PASSENGERS

(A machine which has been used for bomb-dropping in the war has inspired the Germans to build similar craft carrying guns and flying faster. The chief difficulty in constructing such machines is the providing of a landing gear which will withstand the terrific impact of the superimposed weight)



Courtesy of Flying

## ONE OF THE POWERFUL FRENCH MILITARY BIPLANES WITH TWIN ENGINES

(This Dorand armored and armed military biplane served as the pattern for the huge German scouting biplanes. The distinguishing features are the central boat body for the crew and the two smaller side bodies for the motors)

## LARGE MACHINES FOR SCOUTING

On the other hand, the scouting machine carrying guns, bombs, much fuel, and several passengers (three or four pairs of eyes see more than one pair) must obviously be large. Hence we have mammoth biplanes and even triplanes, inherently slow in maneuvering for the same reason that an elephant takes more time to turn than a mouse. In these huge craft, measuring from seventy to 180 feet from wing tip to wing tip, the weight may not be concentrated as in a small Fokker without setting up strains in maneuvering; and when the weight is distributed, as it must be for safety, it is impossible to turn quickly.

These spectacular, aerial giants are older than the war. The first and least pretentious was Colonel Cody's big machine which won a prize in an English military contest for fast climbing in 1912 and which was simply an enlarged biplane. Then came the Russian, Sikorsky—one of those who profited by the military boom of 1912. His design was bold because of its hugeness. Imagine an ordinary tractor biplane ninety feet in span, with two motors of 400 horsepower; imagine a body like a veritable Pullman car in which seventeen passengers can eat and sleep, and you have the Sikorsky. German observers in this war describe it as very stiff in turn-

ing, although capable of making sixty miles an hour. They improved on it soon enough with a fighting dreadnought—a craft which is speedier, which has even greater carrying capacity, and which mounts two machine guns. It reminds one of a catamaran; for it has two bodies, each containing a motor driving a tractor propeller, with a third in the center carrying the crew and the guns. The air resistance is less than that of the Sikorsky; little power is needed to attain a great speed; and quicker turning is possible. In none of the newspaper dispatches does the Sikorsky figure as a battle plane; it is credited only with bomb-dropping on a wholesale scale. The German dreadnought is a real fighting craft.

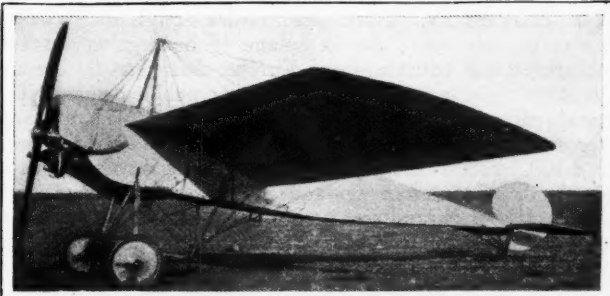
## THE "AMERICA"

A good landing gear (the equivalent of a bird's feet) is even more essential to a giant Sikorsky than to a Fokker. Sikorsky resorted to a clumsy understructure which, no doubt, answered the purpose of withstanding the terrific impact of tons against the solid earth, but which reduced his speed. How the Germans have overcome the difficulty is not known. Curtiss wisely avoided it by building his *America* as a hydroaeroplane, to rest on water when not flying.

The *America* was by far the best piece of

aeroplane designing ever produced in this country. Of all the machines in the world she was built not to gain a selfish military advantage, but to fly across the Atlantic Ocean and thus to mark a new era in aerial transportation. Whether or not she would have succeeded in performing that stupendous feat, it remains to the credit of Glenn H. Curtiss who built her and of Rodman Wanamaker who paid for her construction that she was conceived in a fine, imaginative moment and that she was the product of a noble

critics comment unfavorably on the mounting of two motors at the sides of the car in a position so exposed that they must retard the entire machine. But high power, even though it reduces the radius of action, offers some compensation. The French understand these things better. Their armored Dorand, a two-motor battle plane similar to the German catamaran dreadnought, but carrying only one gun, encloses each engine in a separate, streamline body. The methodical, painstaking, scientific Germans expose their radiators at the flanks of the bodies, so as to obviate resistance and yet to obtain all the cooling effect that comes from rushing through the air at more than railway speed.



THE FAMOUS FOKKER MONOPLANE

(Germany is using this machine to fight off heavier and more unwieldy scouts. The Fokker makes over 100 miles an hour. It is armed with a machine gun. The machine owes its efficiency entirely to its high speed and its maneuvering ability)

effort to reach an attainable but remote goal. She typified the mechanical genius of a nation to which invention means what art meant to Italians of the Renaissance. Even now one thinks of her with a thrill, soaring over a black, billowy sea, silhouetted against the moon and the silver clouds, and blotting out constellations for a second,—the symbol of a western world soaring to a higher destiny. If there is poetry in motors and planes, the *America* was a mechanical epic.

We must speak of her in the past tense; for there is every reason to believe that, after having been sold to England, when the outbreak of war thwarted all plans for a transatlantic flight, she was destroyed in performing some naval duty. But her sisters, each duplicating her wonderful cabin and accommodations for five, and her impressive spread of wing (seventy-two feet) now cleave the air of the Channel and the North Sea.

Wondrous as the *Americas* are because of their hugeness, they, too, are merely enlargements of a well-tried type. Aeronautic



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

THE FRENCH MORANE MACHINE

(The German Fokker is practically a copy of this type. It has the same advantages of high speed and wasplike agility)

favor in spite of the advantages to be obtained from a strong, compact, and light structure. Pile up surface on surface and head-on resistance must increase. By giving his dreadnought a span greater than the width of most city streets Curtiss was forced to adopt the triplane construction. And yet even this biggest of flying machines is remarkable chiefly for staggering size. Here is a craft measuring 133 feet from wing tip to wing tip. The corresponding seventy-two feet of the *America* are dwarfed, and the thirty-five feet of the ordinary flying boat seem but a hand's breadth in comparison.

Consider this astonishing vessel more closely. Because her propellers are over-

large, her four engines of 960 horsepower must be exposed, no doubt against the designer's will. Her hull embodies watertight compartments and similar refinements of naval architecture. No human hand could balance wings so expansive; hence we find that the stabilizers are actuated by a 40 horsepower auxiliary motor, which also serves to start the main engines electrically. A dozen or more men can live in her cabin, sleeping in berths and dining from tables as comfortably as in any railway car. However, her crew will probably not comprise more than five, so that she can carry as much fuel and as many bombs as possible and mount a veritable battery of three-inch guns.

Compared with this latest production in aeronautic architecture a Fokker seems like an insect. But the Fokker has a 100-horsepower motor and darts through clouds at a speed well over one hundred miles an hour. The 960-horsepower motors of the Curtiss triplane will never drive her faster than sixty or seventy miles an hour. A Zeppelin travels as fast as that. What is more, it can journey for a thousand miles, stay aloft whole days at a time, and need not confine itself to the sea in order to find a spot on which it can alight. Only the war made it possible to build the giant triplane. In more peaceful times no government would have so cheerfully bought an experimental leviathan.

The aeroplane's superiority over the dirigible lies in smallness. No dirigible can hope to outdistance or out-manuever the average aeroplane. If we may judge from past history a large dirigible is more serviceable than a large biplane or triplane. There must be a maximum favorable size for the large plane, a size which will still enable it to outstrip and out-manuever the dirigible and which will give it all the advantages, of comfort and roominess. The new triplane of Curtiss seems to have overstepped that limit.

#### TESTING FOR SAFETY

The mere fact that only armies buy flying machines and that only soldiers, trained to fight and die, fly day in and day out, means that aerial locomotion is not safe enough, even for lovers of sport who court danger on the polo field or in the jungle. If automobile-building has become a thriving industry, home.

it is because a motor-car may break down without breaking necks. Even in the crudest of early motor-cars life and limb might be risked without a thought.

From the very beginning the automobile manufacturer was able to live by selling to the general public. No aeroplane maker has thus far prospered by following the same method. Until it becomes preëminently safe the flying machine must remain essentially a vehicle of war. Not until fortunes have been spent in building and testing flying machines can there be any assurance of safety in the air. Since fortunes are now actually being spent the aeroplane is undergoing on the battlefields of Europe that very testing on a vast scale which the public demands before it is convinced that flying involves no alarming risks.

When the flying machine is as safe as the motorboat—and the war, as we have seen, has almost made it so—it must be sold at a more moderate price than is now possible. A dependable aeroplane is worth between \$8000 and \$12,000,—the price of a racing automobile. If it can travel from Calais to Karlsruhe and back in time of war with absolute safety, it may be trusted with an important mission in time of peace. What will that mission be? The bearing of mail matter at first, without a doubt. Then will come the transportation of generals of industry whose presence is required at a distant factory. Whenever the cost of transportation is negligible compared with the value of the result to be obtained, the aeroplane will find immediate use. But not until a Henry Ford appears on the scene will it become so cheap and trustworthy that it will be used as generally as the automobile.

Before it can rival the automobile the aeroplane must be considerably improved. Starting and landing grounds of large area are now necessary. Mechanism must be invented which will enable the machine to leap into the air and alight without a run, if possible. That means larger propellers and larger surfaces which can be inclined at a steeper angle than the long tail now permits near the ground. The enlarged propellers must be adjustable and reversible to attain this ideal. When these improvements are made there is no reason why every well-to-do dweller in the suburbs may not use the air in traveling between his office and his home.



# CAMPAIGNS AS SPRING OPENS

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

## I. THE NEW GERMAN OFFENSIVE IN THE WEST

**B**Y all odds the most interesting military operation of the last month has been the renewal of German offensive operations between the Oise and the sea—and still later on the Champagne battlefield of last September—which has been marked by very sharp fighting in the sector between Arras and La Bassée. Nothing like as sustained and considerable a German offensive operation has taken place since the successful advance about Ypres, almost a year ago, which was ushered in by the first use of poison gas.

Does this new operation point to a new general offensive in the West, one more effort to get to the Channel, to hack a way to Calais? This question has been on everyone's lips and the fact must be recognized that there is sharp disagreement among military observers as to how the fighting is to be interpreted. As seasoned an observer as Joseph Reinach, writing in the Paris *Figaro*, asserts that there is now coming a final German effort to win a decision in the West. Hilaire Belloc, in *Land and Water*, is equally positive that the Germans are attempting nothing more serious than an effort to regain some of the ground lost by them last spring and last autumn, and thus to put themselves in a better posture to meet the great Allied drive, which everyone expects in the spring.

Of the two views, which seems the more reasonable? Perhaps the best that it is possible to do is to point out that so far the Germans have done nothing that would confirm the view that they are making a great bid for a decision, but that their operation is not yet complete, and then to examine the facts and conjectures which are available.

To support the notion that the Germans are intending to make a real drive, there is the very widely spread rumor, which has persisted for months, that such an attempt was to be made and that the Germans planned to stake all on this effort. All over Europe, and quite generally in this country, the report has been in circulation. Again, we have seen in the recent weeks that the

Belgian-Dutch frontier has been closed, invariably a prelude to some great military movement in the West. Finally, we have the testimony of Russian correspondents that many German troops have been moved from the East to the West; the number has been placed as high as 600,000, while almost incredible estimates have been made of the number of cannon that have been moved.

Now, it must be conceded at once that if the Germans could win a great victory in the West,—take Calais, Boulogne, and the Channel Coast,—the moral effect would be incalculable and might lead with brief delay to the making of peace, which is postponed now because of the belief in all Allied capitals that Germany is approaching exhaustion, that the war has been won. If Germany could succeed now, where she failed at the Yser, in the battles of Flanders fifteen months ago, if she could now straighten her line out in France and by shortening it reduce the number of men required to guard it, her success would be a staggering blow, particularly to France.

But is the thing possible? Frankly, I cannot believe it, because it seems to me impossible that Germany could succeed now, when she is outnumbered in the West and has to face equal if not superior resources in munition and in guns, when she has to break through long stretches of permanent works that have been building for months. If it were not possible for Germany to do it fifteen months ago, when she had more men, more guns, and more shells than her opponents, when there were 100,000 British instead of 1,000,000 in the field, at least the weight of probability is against such a success now.

We know that Germany has kept in the West little less than 1,500,000 men at any time. To bring 600,000 from the East now,—accepting the reported figures as correct,—would be to raise the total to about 2,000,000. But the British have officially announced their force in the West as around 1,000,000, and we know that the French have not less than 1,500,000 in their first line. As to munitions, Allied superiority in the Champagne battle was manifest, and

since then not merely French and British, but American factories, the last now beginning to deliver appreciable quantities, have been busy.

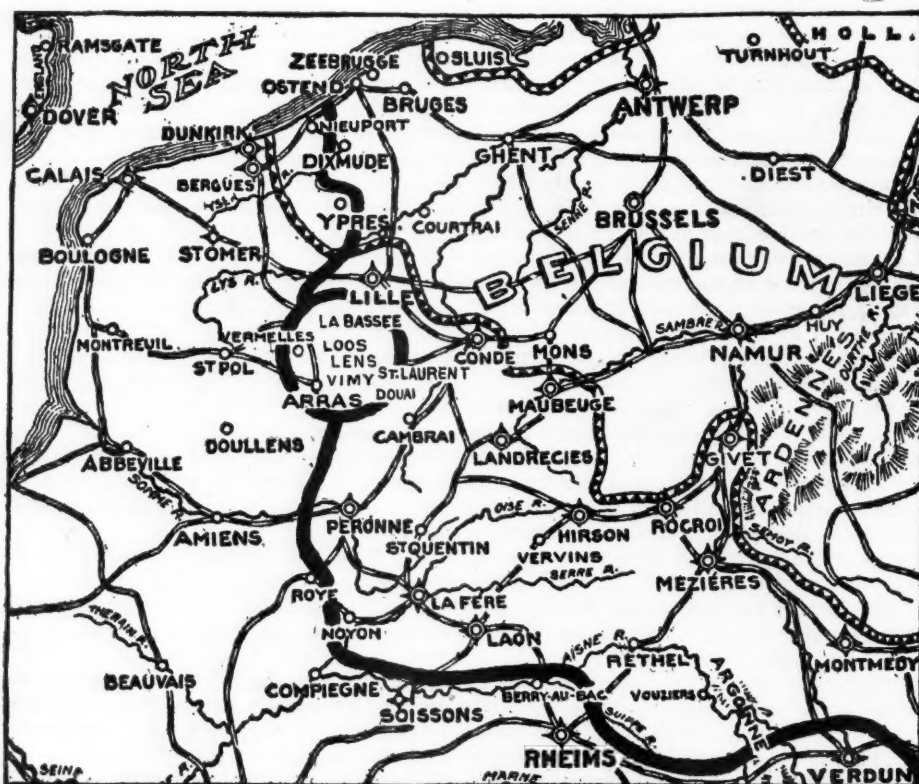
To break through the Allied lines would entail huge losses; we know the Allied failure in September cost not less than 200,000. Before a real break could be made, the Allies, having superior numbers, would be able to make a concentration of greater numbers behind the danger point and the German advance would be checked. On the surface the thing seems impossible; but the impossible has proven by no means unlikely in this war, and prophecy is foolish.

## II. AN OFFENSIVE-DEFENSIVE

Conceding that the theory of a real drive is at least apparently unreasonable,—and this is the prevailing view of British and French officers at the front,—what might the Germans be seeking in a smaller way? What could their operations mean, so far as they have developed, if they did not mean a drive to Calais?

Here the answer is simple. First of all, in the general field of the war it is plain that the weather conditions, which make impossible operations in the East on a grand scale like the summer drive to Warsaw and beyond, allow the Germans to move some corps to the West temporarily. These corps, by exerting pressure, will naturally make the Allies cautious about weakening their lines by sending new reinforcements either to Salonica or Suez. We know that many have already been sent. To take a parallel, one German explanation for the fierce offensive around Ypres last spring is that it was designed to prevent the British from sending troops to the Gallipoli Peninsula to reinforce the fleet, by threatening their line in Flanders.

Turning now to the specific local purpose that the German operations may disclose, the explanation is not hard to find. We know that the Allies are planning to make a grand attack in the spring. We know that this attack is likely to come north of Arras and in Champagne, because the French and British have fought two terrific battles on the



THE GERMAN "SALIENT" ON THE WESTERN FRONT, WITH THE RIGHT RESTING ON LILLE, THE CENTER NEAR COMPIEGNE, AND THE LEFT ON VERDUN

same ground,—battles which were recognized as efforts either to break the German lines at once or to open the way for a successful attack later, by taking the positions which would make the next attack easier.

Last May and June the French, badly supported by the British, who had to give their job up, made a very material advance north of Arras. Look at any map which shows the lines of elevation, and it will be seen that the French front, stretching north from Compiègne to the point where it joins the British around Lens, actually marks with fair accuracy the eastern limit of the hills which rise abruptly from the Channel and extend east until they break down into the basin of the Scheldt, north of the Somme Valley.

When the German advance came to an end in the autumn of 1914 and the lines were traced out for both sides, the Germans managed to hold the last crests of these hills. From St. Laurent, just east of Arras, to La Bassée, they occupied the last considerable ridges, the most important of which were the Lorette and Vimy heights, west of Lens. If they could be dislodged from this position they would then be on the downhill slope and in the great northern plain, which would be commanded by the line of crests.

In May the French actually captured the Lorette heights and a nest of little towns at their foot, which had been strongly fortified by the Germans. In the September drive the French crept up the western slopes of the Vimy heights, occupying Hills No. 119 and No. 140, but subsequently losing a portion of their gains and never quite consolidating their position, which would have enabled them to command Lens and the plain from the southwest. The British, to the north, did get Hill No. 70 and for a few brief hours were in a position to compel the evacuation of this town, which is the center of the roads and railroads of this district. But they were pushed back, owing to the bad handling of their reserves.

All told, however, the French and the British did make such considerable gains as to be in a position to complete the work with a push no more considerable than that of last autumn. If the British could gain another mile, from Loos, they would retake Hill No. 70, would envelop La Bassée, and could probably turn the Germans out of this position. If the French could make a half-mile advance, the Vimy heights would be theirs. The experience of the last two Allied offensives has demonstrated that a gain of from

one to two miles is not an unreasonable expectation, given the preparation, the munitions, and the men.

But if the Germans could retake the more important portions of the Allied gains of last September, then the work would all have to be begun again and the spring drive might go no further than to regain what had been taken last September and lost subsequently. In other words, the German movement might be interpreted as a defensive-offensive,—an operation designed to take the positions essential to the maintenance of their lines against the general attack that they expect when the spring comes.

If the Allies take Hill No. 70, Lens and the Vimy ridge next spring, the German lines may have to go back for some miles, perhaps as far back as Douai; the German hold upon Lille will be shaken, and the whole German right flank in France will be threatened. This is what the Allies aimed at last May and last September. Up to the present moment the German operations seem directed toward preparing for a new storm, but on February 15, when these lines are written, they have made little real progress.

### III. THE SPRING OFFENSIVE

Once more I advise my readers to study the map to grasp the full possibilities of the spring drive, that seems inevitable and promises to come on the battlefields of Artois and of Champagne. The German position in France is a deep salient, wholly like the familiar Polish salient which Hindenburg and Mackensen broke last summer; it rests upon the fortified city of Lille in the West and upon the Argonne ridge, now turned into a German fortress, on the East.

This salient, like the Polish salient, cannot be attacked in front, because the Champagne Hills, north of the Aisne, like the Bzura-Rawka line in Poland, have been turned into fortresses and lend themselves naturally to defense. But south of Lille and east of Rheims there are points in the German line which offer a maximum of profit for the minimum of labor.

We saw in Poland that Mackensen and Hindenburg, moving towards a common objective behind the Russian front, sought first to break through the Russian lines, and then, by joining hands behind the Russian center, to envelop it and cut off and capture the Russian masses.

Now, if the Allied drive in the spring should succeed in piercing the German lines

south of Lille and east of Champagne, they would threaten the German center in exactly the same way, and the maximum of their possible gain would be cutting off some corps of Germans, who now hold the Aisne heights, by enveloping them. The Allied armies would operate on lines which almost exactly recall those of Mackensen and Hindenburg, and Namur would recall Brest-Litovsk, in the Polish campaign.

The Russians escaped from the net, but they had to evacuate all of Poland and most of Galicia. It is equally possible that if the German lines were broken this spring, Germany would find no real halting place until she had brought all her forces behind the Meuse, or even behind the Ourthe; that is, covering the Prussian frontier by holding Liège and the Ardennes heights to the Franco-Belgian frontier near Longwy.

Allied strategy has always been transparently clear in the West. To attack at both ends of the curving German line, to attempt to break the line and reach the German lines of communication, which in Artois and Flanders lie perilously near the front; to strive to envelop and cut off some German corps, but in any event to turn them all out of France and Belgium, by the threat of envelopment,—this has been what Joffre has sought from the end of the Battle of the Marne to the present moment.

Draw a straight line on the map from Arras east and from the Champagne front east of Rheims north; these lines will show the general direction that the Allied pushes will take. They recall exactly the pushes of Mackensen through Lublin and Hindenburg through Ossowetz and Lomza. The line from Arras almost immediately begins to cross the main railroad lines from Paris to Brussels and to Liège, and these are the lifelines of German military existence in France. Hindenburg's operation similarly menaced the Petrograd-Warsaw railroad. Mackensen in the same manner struck at and cut the Warsaw-Kiev railroad.

I am not pretending to say that the Allies will pass the first line of German trenches in the West this spring. But I am trying to make clear what their major purpose has been and probably will remain, when they undertake one more "big push." Think of the Allied armies in Artois and Champagne as the two jaws of a pair of pincers, closing in on a nut held between them, and the Allied strategy is plain.

It is always to be recalled, however, that, even if the Germans do not succeed in hold-

ing their present lines, they may straighten them and still hold much of Belgium. It is even conceivable that they may decide to shorten them, as did the Russians, without risking all on a decision. Should they do this a natural line would be behind the Meuse from their trenches in front of Verdun to Givet on the Franco-Belgian frontier and then south of Namur across the Sambre-Meuse triangle, through Maubeuge to Lille. This would abolish the salient. It would also straighten their line and shorten it materially, but it means the surrender of almost all of the French territory now held.

A line drawn west of Antwerp and Brussels to Namur and then behind the Meuse to Verdun would be still shorter and stronger, but this would mean the surrender of the Belgian coast. I mention these lines, both of which are said to have been prepared, merely to indicate that an Allied offensive might be checked far short of the German frontier, even if it were highly successful. I have discussed the whole subject at this length because I may not be able to reach it again before the spring campaign begins in earnest.

#### IV. MORE ABOUT ATTRITION

Very briefly, now, I desire to revert to the subject of casualties and to the theory of the war of attrition, which I have discussed at length in these articles before. Some weeks ago a member of the British Cabinet read in the House some statistics of German losses, which led to much mistaken comment, which was wholly unfortunate from the British point of view and one more example of British carelessness as to foreign opinion. As he explained at the time, this list was not the official British estimate of German losses, it was merely the tabulation made by British agents of the lists issued by the Germans themselves. The British Government has never pretended to give the public any estimate of the actual German losses, as they estimated them. Nor was there any suggestion that these German figures were accepted by the British Government as accurate. All that happened was that some member of Parliament asked the government what the total according to German lists was at that moment and he was told.

The Germans do not issue any statement of their total losses, but they do post lists bearing the names of the killed, wounded, and missing. These lists are tabulated in neutral and belligerent countries and thus



we get from time to time from Amsterdam, from Berne, and from London the figures of German losses; these figures are obtained by adding the totals of the past lists and those of the new lists.

Yet in Great Britain and in America the announcement in the House was misunderstood and many comments have been made on the supposition that the figures cited in Parliament were the British estimates, not the German admissions, and these figures have been used to confound the observers, who, like myself, have estimated the German losses to be much greater than their lists disclosed. Such estimates may be wrong, the German official statements may be correct, but the announcement made in the House has no bearing, because it was a mere statement of the figures which came from German lists.

But these figures have a particular value. At the end of November the Germans had lost in killed, according to their lists, deaths from sickness included, something over 600,000; in prisoners, missing included, a little less than 400,000; in wounded, a little under 1,600,000. Their total loss was, then, something under 2,600,000.

The British losses for about the same period were officially announced in Parliament to be 530,000,—120,000 killed, 70,000 captured, 340,000 wounded. Compare the two and it will be seen that the percentage of killed to wounded is about the same,—a little higher in the German case, but we know that the Germans report only serious wounds, as do the French, while the British report all wounds, however slight. The percentage of captured in both cases is practically the same. It is reasonable to conclude then that the familiar ratio of killed to total casualties, anywhere from one in four to one in five, is holding good in this war.

But the other day a French Socialist deputy was quoted as saying in England that the total French losses in the first eighteen months of the war had been 2,500,000,—700,000 killed, 1,400,000 wounded, and 400,000 captured. This was instantly seized upon and used to prove that the French were rapidly approaching exhaustion. The figures were, of course, preposterous. Quite possibly the French actually suffered 2,500,000 casualties in the first eighteen months,—this is the figure generally accepted,—but if they have we shall find that the ratio of killed to wounded will be about the same as the German; the figure for the prisoners does meet the probabilities.

But if the French casualties were 2,500,000, then the German figure must be far higher, for the French loss represents a 50 per cent. loss on the highest figure anyone has suggested for French numbers, namely 5,000,000. Now the French have, on the whole, done less steady fighting than the Germans, who have been engaged either in the West or the East or in both fields without interruption since the war began until December last. If the French, then, have lost 50 per cent. of their resources in men, the Germans have lost the same at least, and that would mean around 4,000,000, which is about what has been estimated. Accepting the usual ratio, this would mean: killed, 925,000; wounded, 2,625,000; captured, 450,000.

The last German figures that we have place the Prussian losses alone at just less than 2,400,000. Bavaria, Saxony, and Wurttemberg issue their own lists and on the basis of population, they would add around 600,000 to the total, making 3,000,000 in all—1,000,000 less than would be expected, on the basis of French losses. What is the explanation of this disparity? The Allies believe that it is found in the alleged custom of the Germans to include in their casualties only those who are permanently disabled; that is, they declare that German reports show the permanent wastage only. Colonel Repington, the military correspondent of the *Times* of London, fixes at 2,700,000 the permanent German loss for the first eighteen months.

This last figure is pretty close to the German losses, as admitted in their official statements or lists, of 3,000,000. Hilaire Belloc estimates for the same period that the German permanent loss has been 3,250,000 to 3,750,000, and asserts that the French General Staff estimates place it above 4,000,000 after the most exhaustive examinations. Personally I believe that 3,000,000 is a conservative estimate. This accepts Colonel Repington's 2,700,000 and merely adds 300,000 to cover what is known as "temporary-permanent loss." This rather complex thing is thus explained: At any given moment there will be several hundred thousand men, whose wounds will presently heal and permit them to return, but who cannot go back at that moment. This is a constant element and will remain so. Thus at the end of the war, there will be these thousands of men, with unhealed wounds, who in a few months would be available.

Assuming that the Germans have lost



RUSSIA'S WAR FRONT IN GALICIA

3,000,000 permanently, they still have at least 5,000,000 in hand. It takes about 3,000,000 to hold their lines; it takes another million to look out for other services, garrisons, communications, etc. They still have, then, another million of reserves to draw on, before real attrition, that is, an actual decline in numbers at the front, can begin. If their loss in eighteen months was 2,700,000, this is at the rate of 150,000 per month. It will then be seven months before they will actually lack men to hold their lines; seven months will take us to August.

If the French figures are correct the point where exhaustion will begin to tell has already set in. If the German figures are correct, then there is no likelihood that Germany will run short of men in any time within which it is reasonable to suppose the war will continue. But the German figures can hardly be correct, because the experience of both the British and the French, who know their own casualties and use them as a basis for estimating the German, points to

a far greater German total and thoroughly justifies the conclusion that the German figures, as shown by the posted lists, represent only the permanent wastage and not the temporary, incident to the removal of men by wounds which are not serious enough to keep them permanently out of the line.

## V. RUSSIA BEGINS AGAIN

Late in January there developed far to the south along the Dniester and in the corner where the frontiers of Russia, Austria, and Rumania meet, a new Russian offensive, which attracted very wide attention, and for several weeks made undeniable progress. Once more there were heard from Petrograd the familiar rumors that Czernowitz had fallen and that Russian troops were about to penetrate into Bukovina. Further to the north about Tarnopol and east of the fortresses of Dubno and Lutske, which fell to the Austrians in the summer offensive, the Russians were also on the move and were approaching the Stry River between the fortress of Lutske and the Pripet marshes.

The fighting in these regions was very severe. East of the Strypa in Galicia the Russians made material progress and passing the Sereth approached and crossed the Strypa at certain points. They seem also to have approached close to the heights which command Czernowitz, and they are reported to have pressed up-stream along the Dniester at several points north and west of Czernowitz.

After moderate progress this offensive was apparently completely checked in the last days of January, but seemed to be breaking out again at the outset of the third week in February. Its immediate purpose was comparable to that of the German action in France. The general supposition has been that if the Central Powers took the offensive in the spring they would endeavor to penetrate into southern Russia, throw the Russian line back from the Rumanian frontier and, having taken Bessarabia, undertake to persuade the Rumanians, with this as a bribe, to enter the war on the Teutonic side.

In the summer campaign the Germans and Austrians pushed a considerable distance east, leaving to the Russians but a thin slice of all their earlier conquests in Galicia. The present Russian operation was regarded as an effort to retake certain valuable positions to make more certain their hold in this corner and to strengthen their line against a possible spring offensive, by regaining

towns and hills of strategic or tactical value.

But the political purpose was still more patent. A Russian victory within sight and hearing of the Rumanian frontier would unquestionably have a real effect in shaping the opinion within Rumania, still balancing between neutrality and an enlistment on the Allied side. To take Czernowitz and a portion of Bukovina, the prize desired by the Rumanians, would be to take possession of something that could be offered to the Rumanians, while the moral effect would not fail to be beneficial.

Again, when the offensive began, the Germans and Austrians were concentrating troops to make an attack upon Salonica. This attack was promptly postponed and there was evidence that troops and artillery had been recalled from the Balkans to assist in checking the Russian drive in Galicia and Volhynia. Every day added to the already long delay of the Germans in attacking Salonica gave new promise that the attack would fail as it increased the number of Allied troops gathered there and the work on the fortifications was pushed a little closer toward completion.

To judge from the present outlook, the Russian offensive completely succeeded in its purpose to relieve the pressure upon Salonica. Indeed there is every present indication that the Germans have abandoned their purpose to attack this position, that they have found their Bulgarian and Turkish allies quite unwilling to bear the brunt of the fighting and have not been able to collect the necessary troops themselves. Salonica seems to have become another Lisbon and the position from the Vardar to the Struma, behind the Chalcidice lakes, another Torres Vedras.

Aside from the strategical importance of the Russian offensive, however, its main value lay in the warning it conveyed to Germany and the message it had for the rest of the world that Russia was not crushed, but had again found herself, was again preparing to resume the advance. More than this, she was resuming the advance in the field where her first victories had brought Austria to the edge of ruin, and her armies, supplied with heavy artillery in quantities which surprised the Central Powers, quite as much as Russia's allies, were now to be reckoned with on the offensive. Another proof of the amazing resiliency of Russia was thus supplied and a new denial was entered to the German boast, now less frequently heard, that Russia was at the point of leaving her allies and making a separate peace.

## VI. MONTENEGRO IS LOST

It remains now to record the progress of events in the Balkans. The conquest of Serbia being complete, there was a general expectation that the Serbian troops, which had taken refuge in the Montenegrin hills, would make a bitter resistance, aided by the Montenegrins. Nothing of the sort happened. Instead the Austrians, moving up from the shore at Cattaro, captured the summit of Mount Lovchen, long a thorn in their sides and hitherto regarded as impregnable. Cetinje, the capital, then Scutari fell, with next to no resistance. Before the world had quite appreciated the fact, Montenegro, which had held out against the Turk for five centuries, was in Austrian hands.

Then came the report that the King had made a peace pact with the Austrians,—a pact which, Vienna reported, assured the King the integrity of his kingdom, save for Lovchen, but allowed the Austrians to occupy it. Vienna positively announced the fact; the world believed it for days. Then the King fled to Italian soil, rumor suggested that he had been practically deposed by some patriotic generals who had declined to be bound by his bargain, and Rome, in its turn, took up the dispute and announced that Nicholas had sold his country out to the Austrians, but had been unable to keep the bargain, while Vienna tardily conceded that peace had not been made.

Meantime the champions of Montenegro promptly opened upon the Italians, charging that they had sacrificed Montenegro, as it has been charged that they sacrificed Serbia, and that there was nothing left to the Serbs of the Black Mountain but to yield, when Italy failed to come to their assistance. This dispute is still going forward and it is still impossible to settle the merits. But it is clear that there is much to suggest that there is truth in both charges, and that if King Nicholas showed little of the traditional heroism of his race, his son-in-law's country manifested no grave anxiety over the fate of Montenegro until the fall of the country suddenly placed in deadly peril all Italian prospects on the eastern shore of the Adriatic and left the Italian garrison at Valona in imminent danger.

It is a fact that Italian and Serbian interests quarrel in the Adriatic. It is a fact that Italy hopes to seize lands in Dalmatia which are mainly inhabited by Serbs and belong, by right of race, to the Serbs. It is true that when Italy was asked to send



THE ADRIATIC SEA, ILLUSTRATING ITALY'S RELATION TO THE BALKAN CAMPAIGN

to descend the shore of the Adriatic, penetrate into Albania, march upon Durazzo and organize a campaign against Valona. All this would have been impossible if Italian corps had come to the aid of the Serbs in their wonderful retreat from Prisrend and Kossovo. Together the Italians, the Serbs, and such Albanians as Essad Pasha could hold might have checked the Austrians and Bulgarians in the mountains.

As it was, the Serbs, so far as they were able, fled to the coast and were transported to Corfu, now occupied by the French, to Tunis, and to Salonica, King Peter took refuge in France, and there was left only a small Italian force at Valona and a few Serbs to meet the oncoming Austri-

troops to help Serbia, at the moment when Bulgaria declared war, at the moment when only Italy had troops free and near, she declined, and her refusal sealed the fate of Serbia. Again, when the Serbs were retreating across the mountains upon Durazzo and Scutari, Italy refused to send troops to cover their retreat, and this contributed to the practical destruction of the Serbian army.

Apologists for Italy maintain that the men were lacking, that it was impossible to improvise a campaign in the brief time that was allowed. Neither the one excuse nor the other wholly satisfies. Unmistakably there will be those who will always believe that Italy was willing to see Serbia crushed, that there might be a less dangerous rival on the eastern shore of the Adriatic, and that she might prevent the union of the Southern Slavs in a strong Adriatic state. Serbia crushed, even if the Allies won the war, King Peter's nation could hardly regain its strength for some years, and in those years Italy might hope to consolidate her own hold upon both Dalmatia and Albania, keeping the Serbs out of North Albania and the Greeks out of the southern districts.

But Italian calculation, if this was Italian calculation, seems to have been overastute, for the Montenegrins, finding that they could look for no aid from Italy, gave up the fight and this opened the road for the Austrians

an storm, which was now directed at Valona.

## VII. ITALY'S FAILURE

If Valona falls, then Austria will be mistress of the eastern shore of the Adriatic from Pola to the Straits of Otranto. Cattaro, by the fall of Lovchen, has become the best naval base on the Adriatic. Valona will, in Austrian hands, be almost as great a menace to Italy as Calais in German hands might prove to Britain. Albania will be reorganized under William of Wied, and, despite Essad Pasha, Austrian influence, always predominant in the North, will help to consolidate Albanians.

Once the Albanians are enlisted, and they supplied the Turk with his best soldiers for years, it will require few Austrian troops to hold Albania. Bulgarian and German troops at Monastir, that is, on the flank of the Anglo-French force, if it endeavors to move along the Vardar valley, will make such an operation exceedingly difficult. As for Serbia and Montenegro, they will probably be organized under Austrian direction, possibly gaining an apparent freedom under some Austrian or German princelet, while Serbian Macedonia and a portion of the old Serbian State will fall to Bulgaria.

Austria and Germany are thus on the



point of consolidating their position in the Balkans. Save for Valona and Salonica, they have cleared the Peninsula. But this was the thing that brought Italy into the war. She is fighting, not so much for Trieste and the Trentino, which are only incidents, —Trent was hers for the taking a year ago, —as to keep her supremacy in the Adriatic, fortify her position by the possession of Dalmatia and the islands, and block the Austro-German plan to organize the Balkans and the Near East. She had marked Albania and Dalmatia for her own; she had prevented the Greeks from occupying North Epirus in the Balkan Wars; now, when Greece holds these districts, she has consented only with the understanding that they shall be evacuated at the end of the war.

All this future is now imperiled. Even if Austria shall consent to evacuate Albania and the Serb states after the war, she can argue that the Serbs, and not the Italians, are entitled to Serb lands, that Albania should be an independent state or a state partitioned between Greece and Serbia, as Greece and Serbia planned in the Turkish War. If she is forced to consider retiring from the Balkans, she can make her retirement contingent upon the absolute freedom of these states and the consequent elimination of Italy from all power on the east shore of the Adriatic.

Of course, if the Central Powers are crushed, Austrian wishes and arguments will get small hearing. But if the war wears out to a draw, if the terms of peace are made on the basis of conditions before the war, then it is plain that Italy will get nothing along the eastern shore of the Adriatic and that henceforth she will have to face the undying grudge of both the Serb and the Greek, whose aspirations she has thwarted or whose armies she has betrayed, for this latter is the view the Serbs will undoubtedly take.

For neutrals this Italian discomfiture can be borne with equanimity. Italian claim to the Dalmatian coast has little greater justice than German claim to Belgium. Thousands of Dalmatian Slavs are fighting loyally for Austria, because Italy has claimed their lands for her own. Austria, on the other hand, has never attempted to replace the Serbs of Dalmatia and Bosnia by Germans or Hungarians. If Dalmatia and Bosnia are to be taken from Austria, they can only be taken justly to be added to a real Serb state, otherwise there is little to be said about the Balkans from the Allied standpoint, for the Allies have proclaimed their cham-

pionship of small nations and races, and Italy is seeking to enslave portions of two races, the Greek and the Serb.

It will be a fortunate ending for the great war if Serbia is reconstituted to include Montenegro, Dalmatia, Bosnia, and old Serbia, if Macedonia is ceded to Bulgaria, whose claim upon it is every whit as good as Italy's claim upon Trent; if Greece is permitted to hold Northern Epirus and to regain from Italy the Dodecanus and Rhodes, which are wholly Greek. Italy's claim to the Trentino and Trieste, possibly to the Istrian Peninsula, may be justified, but outside of this her ambitions are quite as selfish as Germany's.

The present war grew out of conflicting purposes in the Balkans. Permanent peace can only come if the Balkans are organized into states, which are independent, which are based on a reasonable recognition of ethnological conditions, and have the guarantee of all the great powers, both against each other and against the great powers who seek to destroy them. All this will be impossible if Italy has her way and the recent events in the Balkans, as they tend to make complete Italian success improbable, cannot be distasteful to the most loyal friends of the general Allied cause.

## VIII. PEACE TALK AGAIN

Last of all, I desire to call attention to a new set of peace rumors which attracted very general comment in February. A New York newspaper recognized to be in close touch with the German Embassy in Washington one day announced that Germany was now prepared to make peace on the following terms:

The evacuation of Belgium without payment by Belgium of an indemnity or the cession of Belgian Congo.

The evacuation of Northern France without the payment by France of an indemnity or the cession of French African colonies.

The surrender to Great Britain of all save one of Germany's African and Asiatic colonies. (German East Africa, which has not yet been conquered, was evidently intended to be the exception.)

Poland to be made a separate state, under a German prince and under Austro-German direction, Austria to cede to it a portion of Galicia.

Serbia to be portioned between Austria and Bulgaria.

Albania to be divided between Austria and Greece, which was also to receive a piece of

Macedonia. (Evidently Monastir and the Guevgheleli district were meant.)

The integrity of Turkey to be recognized and Germany's economic supremacy therein to be conceded.

Finally Germany was to annex the Courland province of Russia.

These terms pretty well represent what have recently been put out in Europe, although to them should be added the cession to Italy of the Trentino, but not of Trieste. A glance at them will indicate that the Germans have no longer any illusion about Belgium, no longer expect to acquire any portion of France, and have abandoned the chatter about the "freedom of the seas," which, up to this time, has been repeated in every peace program that Germany's representatives have put forth.

Germany, it would seem, is now ready to make peace on the basis of *status quo ante* in the West; she resigns the lost colonies to Britain. For her, Russia is to pay the price. Poland is to be restored, but as a German or Austro-German protectorate. With Austrian Galicia it would be a state of some 17,000,000 of people, having an area of about 60,000 square miles; roughly, that of New York and New Jersey. The only actual territorial gain is comprehended in the Courland demand, which has a population of less than 750,000.

The partition of Serbia would give Austria most of the old kingdom and reimburse the Hapsburgs for the cession of Galician Poland. With Montenegro and North Albania they would thus acquire the mastery of the Adriatic and the supremacy of the Balkans. Holding Serbia, they would hold the road to Constantinople, and they could rely upon their Greek friend, King Constantine, to acquiesce in their reorganization of the Balkans.

Poland and the Balkans, this is really

what the German proposal now amounts to, and it is actually for these prizes that the war is being continued.

This is a long way from the situation of a year ago, when German annexation of Belgium and Northern France was the expectation of the German patriots. But it is still an impossible basis for peace. It would be a genuine gain for civilization and permanent peace if there could be constituted a Polish kingdom, including the Poles of Prussia as well as Austria and Russia, but such a state could be created only by isolating a million Germans in East Prussia and giving Dantzic and Posen to the reincarnated Poland. Against this Germany would fight to the bitter end.

But it is for an Austro-German protectorate in Poland and an Austrian supremacy in the Balkans that the Austro-Germans are now fighting. Neither side will now make peace, because the Germans still believe that they can bring this modest reward for their labors and sacrifices home; the Allies believe that they can rescue Serbia and restore the independence of the Balkans, but in doing this they will probably have to give Constantinople to the Russians. Some months hence it may be possible that all contestants will consent to a peace that will leave Turkey intact and reorganize the Balkans, not as Russian or Austro-German protectorates, but as independent states. This is the best that can be hoped for by neutrals.

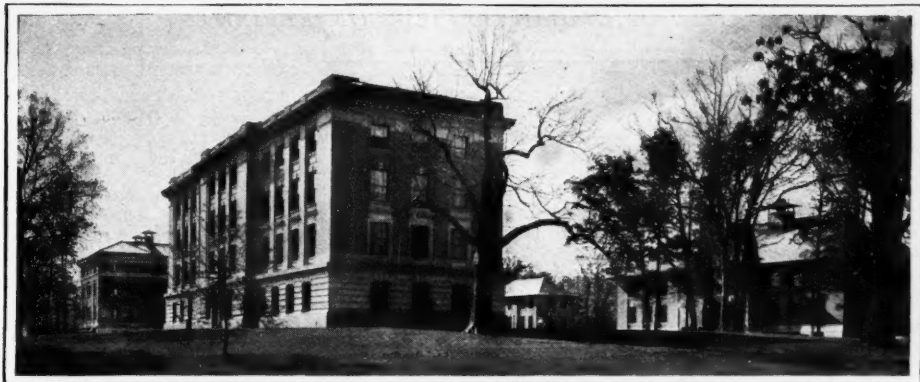
Meantime it is interesting to note that, despite the fact that Germany has met no defeat, her claims as the price of peace have very greatly diminished and are now approaching a reasonable basis. Before the spring campaign we shall probably hear one more proposal, coming, like all the others, from the German side, and not impossibly even more reasonable. But it is a safe forecast that it will be rejected.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

KITCHENER'S NEW ARMY AT ALDERSHOT

(Artillery in the foreground)



BUILDINGS AT WASHINGTON OCCUPIED BY THE BUREAU OF STANDARDS

(In a vault of the fireproof Administration Building, under constant temperature, are preserved the national standards of length and mass to which all American measures are referred)

# UNCLE SAM AS WEIGHER, TESTER, AND MEASURER

BY HERBERT T. WADE

*Here is a Government Bureau, with an uninspiring official name, whose activities are perhaps little known to the general public. Yet its work is of such far-reaching importance as to enter intimately into the life of the individual. Everyone who travels on a railroad or a trolley car, crosses a bridge, enters a stone building, especially a modern city skyscraper, or buys and uses anything by weight and measure, from cloth and meat to gas and electricity,—and this takes in pretty much everybody in the United States,—depends for safety, square dealing, and comfort on the standards of weights, measures, and tests as fixed by the United States Bureau of Standards at Washington.*

THE United States Bureau of Standards Bureau of Weights and Measures at Sèvres, occupies an attractive group of buildings in the suburbs of Washington, D. C., specially located so as to be away from the noise and confusion of the city and electric disturbances incident to trolley lines and course, are metric, a meter bar and a kilomechanical plants that would affect refined gram weight, but the yard and pound in ordinary use are legally defined in terms of the meter and the kilogram, so that to them our customary measures are referred through secondary standards, either metric or customary, whose true values are known with precision, or through State standards deposited at the various State capitols.

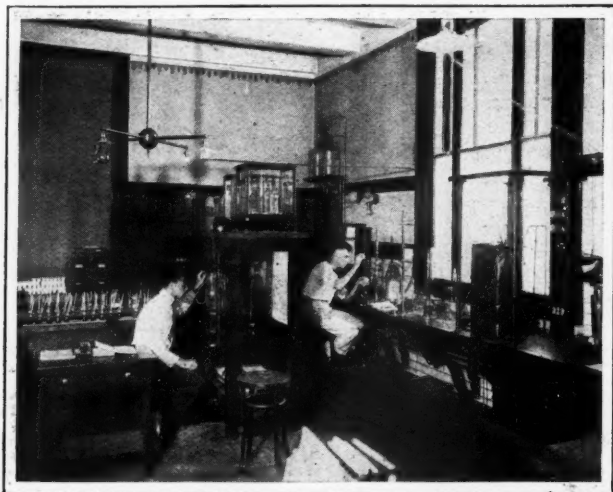
In a fireproof vault in the basement of the Administration Building, protected by steel doors blazoned with the coat of arms of the United States, are deposited and maintained at a constant temperature the national standards of length and mass,—a platinum-iridium bar and cylinder prepared at the International



A GOVERNMENT LABORATORY AT PITTSBURGH  
(Where columns of brick, steel, and other material are tested, and a cement plant is maintained)

laboratory work.

In a subterranean tunnel near the



STANDARDIZING HYDROMETERS

(The density of a liquid, such as the electrolyte of a storage battery, is measured by a hydrometer. This is one of the many instruments sent to the bureau to be tested. Many chemicals and other substances are sold and used, depending upon their specific gravity, and accurate measuring instruments are a prime essential)

buildings, as described, are standardized the highly accurate base-bars and surveyors' tapes, measures of length used in measuring the base lines of the exact Government geodetic surveys which determine accurately the boundaries and geographic position of various points throughout the country, as well as the tapes and other measures used in ordinary surveys, which are sent for standardization by State officials, corporations and individuals, for in this work, as elsewhere, all of the facilities of the Bureau are available to anyone upon payment of a reasonable fee.

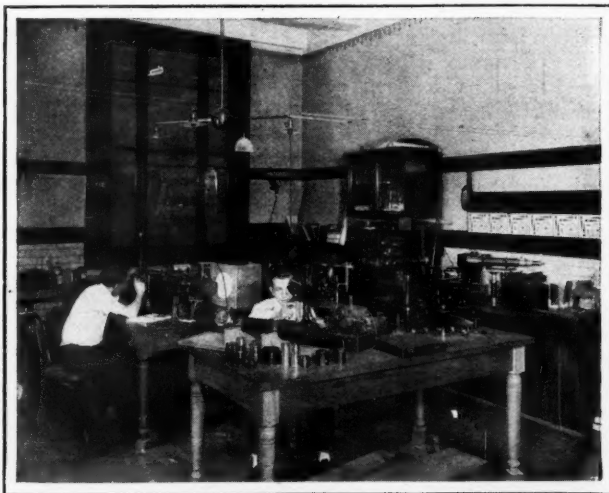
This important work of the national government is done under that section of the Constitution of the United States which confers on the Congress the power to fix the standard of weights and measures, a power which, it may be said in passing, the nation's legislature has never exercised in any full degree or even with such interest as that which it has given to the currency, banking, or similar questions of national concern. Accordingly this function and its logical extensions have been entrusted

ed to a special organization known since its establishment in 1901 as the National Bureau of Standards, with Dr. S. W. Stratton as its director.

This Bureau corresponds in large measure to such similar institutions in Europe as the Normal-Eichungs Kommission and the Kaiserliche Physikalisch Technische Reichsanstalt of Germany, and the National Physical Laboratory of Great Britain, organizations which have had a most beneficial effect on the commerce and industry, especially manufacturing and engineering, of the respective countries. At such laboratories are carried on investigations that as regards apparatus, personnel and

resources, are beyond the power of private or educational institutions, perhaps, in that they must be prosecuted continuously for long intervals of time, or may be involved in carrying out the provisions of statutes.

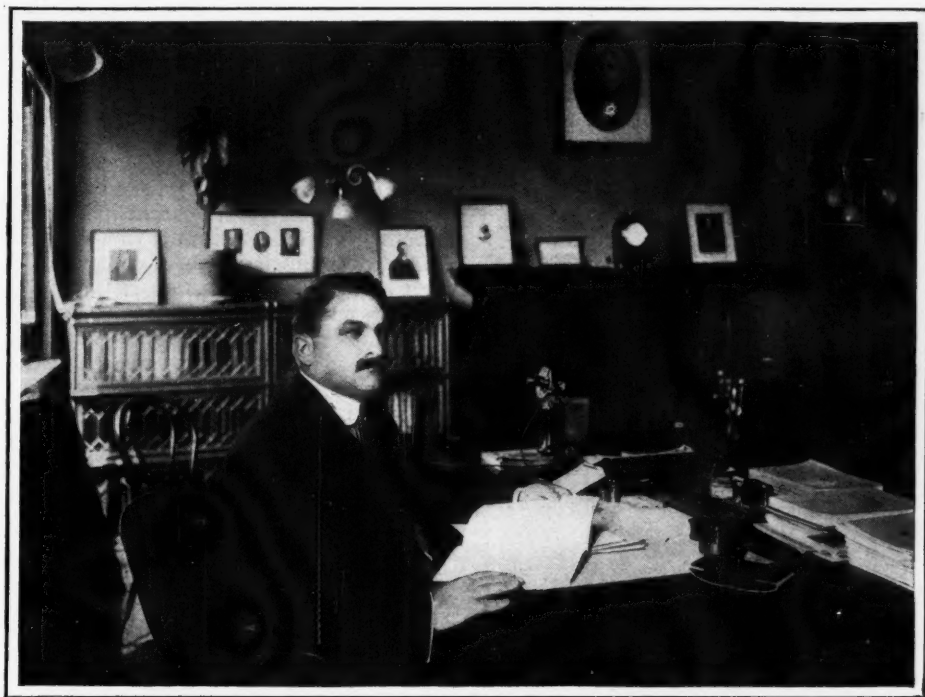
Notwithstanding the fact that the activities of this Bureau have a wide range, varying from the simple concerns of domestic economy to the most refined scientific investigation and questions of highly



THE OPTICAL LABORATORY

(In this department photographic lenses are tested, as here shown, and various spectroscopic investigations are carried on. By accurate measurement of the quartz plates of the polariscopes used by the Custom Service, a saving of \$50,000 in the sugar duties collected by the Government was made.)





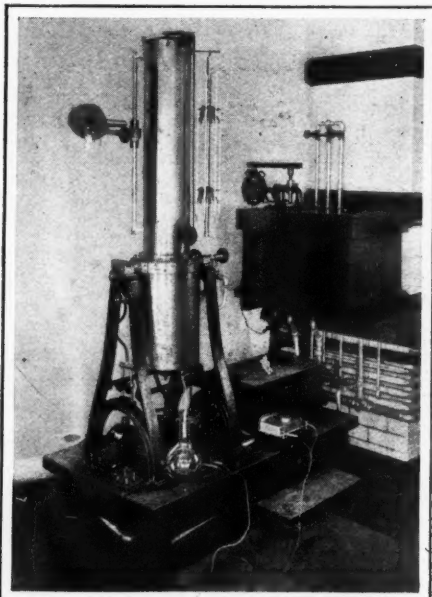
DR. SAMUEL W. STRATTON, DIRECTOR OF THE BUREAU OF STANDARDS FROM ITS FOUNDATION

specialized manufactures, its functions and usefulness hardly are appreciated by the people at large whom it serves so well. In fact, in considering the matter of standards, and especially national standards, modern science and industry are not concerned alone with concrete representations of mere units of weights and measures, but the field has been extended so as to embrace standards of quality, standard methods of manufacturing and operation, and even to include standards of service such as are rendered by public utility corporations furnishing light, power, transportation, and telephone and telegraph facilities. All of these properly may be considered national questions, for it is hard to see why the fundamental considerations should be different or on a different basis in California than in Maine.

Naturally the problems of metrology, as the science of weights and measures is termed, involve highly refined laboratory work such as using as a unit so minute a quantity as the wave length of light, but this does not prevent the Bureau from investigating such problems as scales for the household or the market, and even the accuracy of railway track scales, for weighing apparatus for the largest carloads of coal are investigated, as

well as actually tested on the railways of the country, while constant effort is being made to secure more effective and harmonious legislation and regulation in the field of weights and measures controlled by the various States.

Measures of length as given by foot rule, yardstick or the gauge of the jeweler or tool-maker and the determination of weight, whether it be by the scales of the butcher or the fine balance of the diamond merchant, are but a limited class of measurements where standards, instruments, and methods are involved and must be considered. Thus in electricity there are measurements of resistance, current and difference of potential, not to mention amounts of electric energy as recorded by an ordinary electric meter; in light there must be considered intensity and economy of illumination, which enters into common experience in the candlepower of an electric lamp, in the flow of liquids as seen in current meters; in temperature as in the production of refrigeration or the study of thermometers and pyrometers to measure heat and cold; in the optical characteristics of certain substances as shown for example in the polariscopic testing of sugar; in the measurement of the intensity of the emana-



DETERMINING THE BOILING POINTS OF FINE THERMOMETERS

(Thermometers are accurately tested at the Bureau of Standards and certificates issued. Any purchaser of a clinical thermometer may obtain a certificate of accuracy and know that the patient's temperature is indicated correctly)

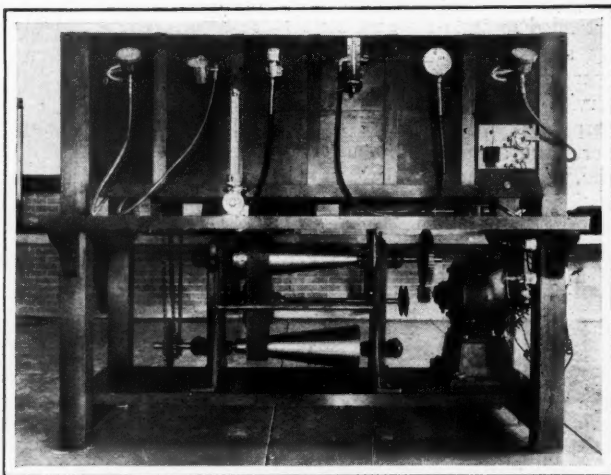
tion of radium salts or other radio-active substances.

For these and other measurements there are naturally involved standards, for it is manifestly impossible for the minds of men doing even the simplest business to meet in trade if they do not have the same units and standards of quality and quantity, much less for scientists or engineers to carry on work where qualitative as well as quantitative results must be considered, for in modern science and technology there must be no such occasions as a piece failing to fit because of lack of harmony in the measurements between the object and its position. This, of course, underlies all mechanical measurements. For example, it would be impossible to assemble a motor-car from parts made by special manufacturers if the measurements did not refer to a single standard capable of exact reproduction.

Consequently the diamond merchant sends his weights to the Bureau of Standards for a certificate of their correctness, the tool-maker his gauges, the thermometer-maker his thermometers, the instrument-maker his meters, the watch-maker his watches and chronometers, and so on through a very long list, a purchaser having a right to demand that any instrument for measurement be accompanied by a certificate from the Government. The result of this has been in most cases to raise the standard of the American product, especially in the case of thermometers, where, in particular, to mention but a single instance, it is now possible to secure clinical thermometers of high precision which not so many years ago were largely imported accompanied by foreign official certificates of their accuracy.

#### NATIONAL STANDARDS FOR PAPER AND CEMENT

With exact measurement underlying all science it is of course possible to determine and define qualities upon a permanent basis. For example, being able accurately to determine the amount and the constitutional elements it is possible to analyze samples of such a substance as cast iron or bronze. Then knowing in addition the physical properties of such a material, in other words its tensile strength, hardness, malleability, crystalline structure, etc., as well as its general availability for a given purpose as shown by practical test, it becomes possible by accurate quantitative analysis, and from the consideration of a number of samples to determine a

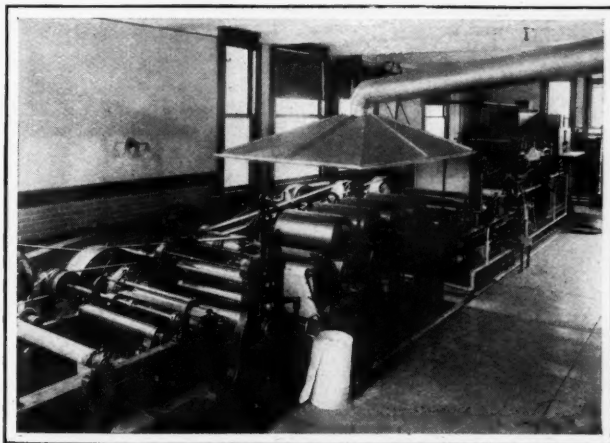


TESTING SPEEDOMETERS FOR MOTOR CARS

(Not only are these instruments tested and standardized, but the best and most accurate methods for this work are determined)

standard sample or samples, to whose specification, both physical and chemical, all materials intended to be of a given grade should conform, and the samples thus prepared and defined become officially recognized.

Now it can be readily understood that determining standards for many classes of materials is rather more than mere laboratory research, and these have been established only after long and patient experiments, not merely in miniatures, but on a large scale, and this is one of the many reasons why the Bureau of Standards requires so complete and extensive a plant. Accordingly, in order to study and determine standards for paper, cement, and other materials, small but prac-

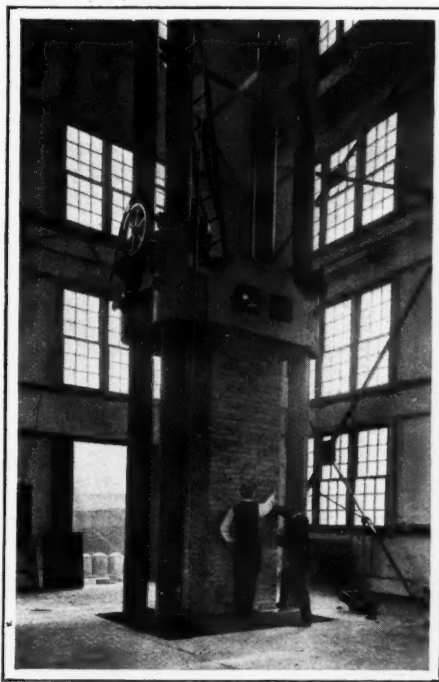


EXPERIMENTAL PAPER PLANT OPERATED BY THE BUREAU OF STANDARDS

(The Bureau prepares the specifications and tests under which more than 40,000,000 pounds of paper used in the Government Printing Office are purchased. To determine how the quality of the paper is affected by the substances entering into its composition it is possible to manufacture paper from any desired constituents. In this way the most economical method of preparing paper for any special purpose is ascertained)

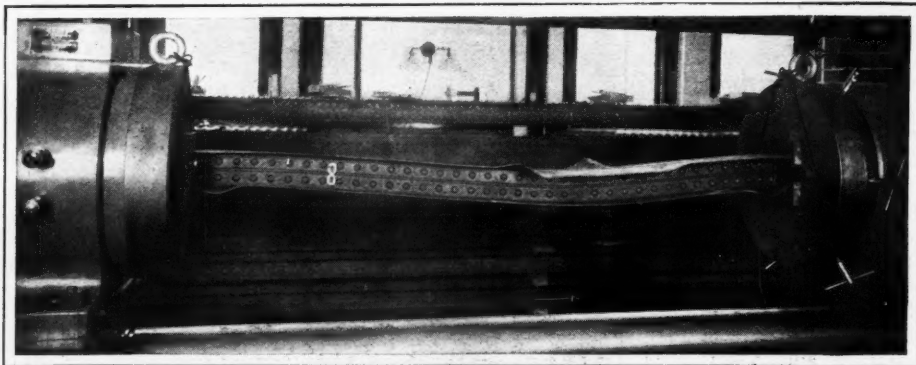
tical paper mills and cement mills and kilns are actually maintained and operated, so that the product may be prepared from any constituents and in any desired manner. Then it may be subjected not merely to the tests of the laboratory, but in actual service as in a wall, or other structure. These substances are mentioned, for in paper and cement the United States Government is a large consumer, requiring some 40,000,000 pounds of the former for the Government Printing Office, and for a single work like the Panama Canal some 2,500,000 barrels annually.

The formal specifications and methods of tests for standard cement, paper, or other substances furthermore are based on actual experience as well as tests and experiments, and in their formulation the Bureau of Standards has the coöperation and criticism not only of engineers and technologists in all the various branches of the Government, but also of the engineering and technical professions generally through their societies and trade organizations, as well as through the assistance of individual members. As the United States Government is a large purchaser and must buy its supplies in the open market through competitive bids, it is of course essential, in the interest of economy, first, that it should secure the article or material best suited for the special purpose; second, that such an article shall be generally available and can be furnished by the trade generally at a price fair to the Government;



TESTING A MASSIVE BRICK COLUMN IN THE STRUCTURAL MATERIALS LABORATORY AT PITTSBURGH

(Here the ten million pound testing machine is used in valuable tests that apply to building, and the knowledge thus gained results in increased safety)



TESTING A STEEL COLUMN FOR STRENGTH IN THE EMERY TESTING MACHINE

(Experiments like these result in determining safe loads for supports in building, and enable the engineers to adapt their designs with a view to maximum safety and economy)

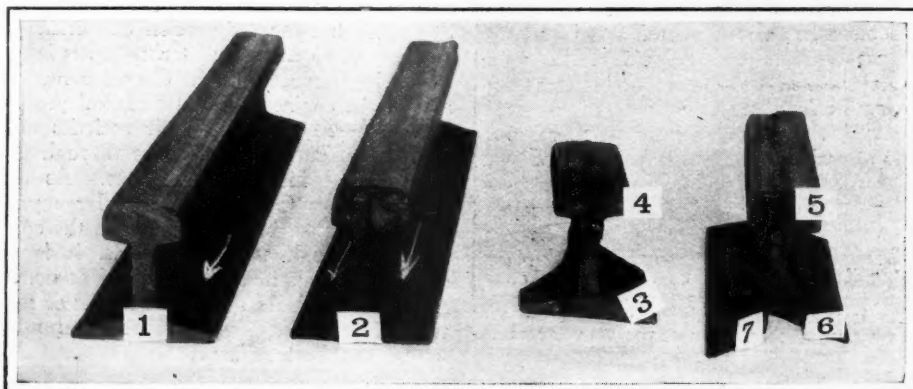
third, that methods of tests and inspection shall insure that the Government receives the qualities and quantities specified.

Now if these specifications are good for the Government it is of course manifest that they are available for the use of any individual, and he is, of course, at liberty to specify that cement, paper, incandescent lamps or other articles or materials shall conform to the official and published specifications of the Bureau of Standards. Accordingly, it must be reiterated that these specifications are not arbitrarily and autocratically established by Government engineers and scientists. Every manufacturer and consumer, every technical association or other body concerned, is invited to criticize and contribute their opinion and experience to the end that the specifications and standards selected shall be fair and representative, in other words truly national and universal, doing away with uncertainty and ambiguity. In addition they must be possible of achievement and easy of

application, yet insure proper quality for the work in hand.

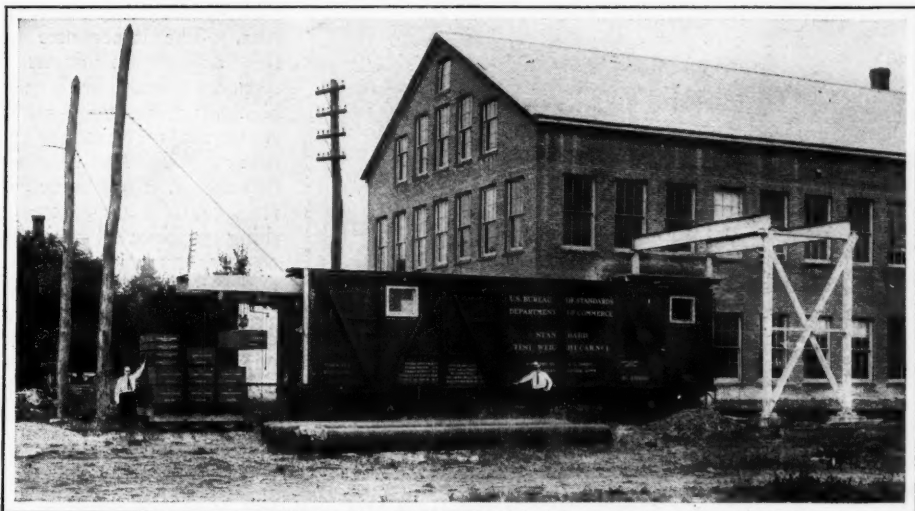
#### STANDARDS FOR LIGHT AND POWER

Of general interest is the work of the Bureau to secure standards for public utilities. In illuminating and fuel this work has been notable for covering the whole field of the gas industry, including conditions of manufacture and distribution, test and inspection, and supervision by State or local commissions or other authorities. Accordingly, the results of these labors have been published in interesting monographs, and the officials of the Bureau are in a position to advise upon request public service or other regulating bodies, both as regards the technology and the regulation of the industry. A model ordinance has been prepared for adoption which aims to secure adequate and proper service for the consumer as well as to be fair to the gas-making corporation and insure a just return. Much public utility regula-



SAMPLES OF RAILS FROM DEFECTIVE RAILWAY TRACK TESTED FOR FLAWS





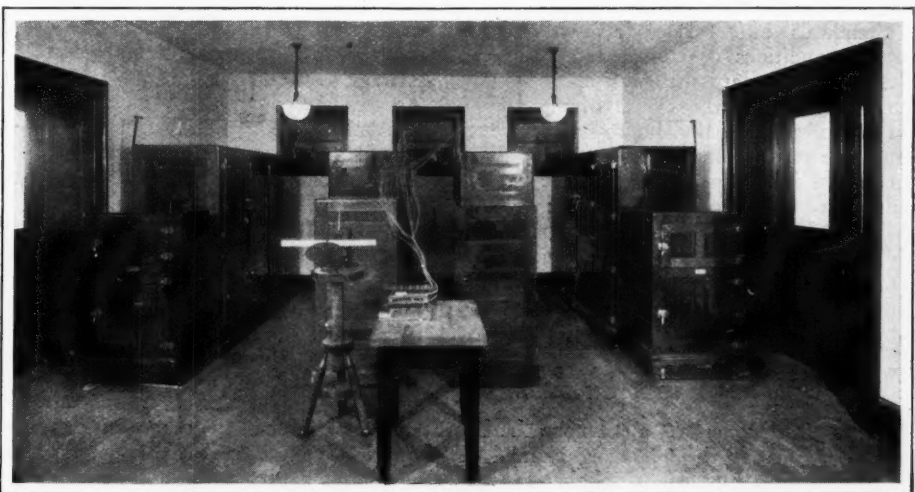
TESTING THE TRACK SCALES OF RAILROADS

(The car shown in the foreground travels all over the United States, carrying an equipment of large-size standard weights for testing railway freight scales. The Government scale engineers examine the weighing machinery of various railroads and mines. Increased accuracy has resulted from such inspections and railway weighing has improved to the mutual advantage of shippers and carriers)

tion, the Bureau of Standards has found, has been done without a proper consideration of reasonable and proper standards of service and other technical considerations, so that as a result the regulating is either inadequate with corresponding little benefit to the consumer or else is oppressive to the corporation, with the inevitable result of producing correspondingly poor service.

Standard safety rules for the electric in-

dustry also have been formulated that are available for all power plants or large stations and distribution systems, and the Bureau has in contemplation studies of transportation problems with a view to determining what are reasonable standards of service such as the proportion of seats to be furnished at times of maximum traffic on a street railway, the intensity and kind of lights for illumination and for signals, and



TESTING REFRIGERATORS FOR THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT

(Good housekeeping by the United States Government demands that it should take care of its ice economically, and before it buys refrigerators determine those best adapted to this end. In the foreground is shown the electrical apparatus for measuring temperatures)



COLUMNS OF BRICK AND CONCRETE UNDERGOING TESTS

various safety and other operating devices.

Now it is quite apparent that many demands for better service from public service corporations are quite unreasonable and are impossible of realization, they yet are frequently made and receive the support of public service or other officials not informed as to the technical merits of the question, so that it is of the greatest advantage to have a disinterested organization in a position to pass with the highest technical and scientific authority on such matters. In other words, the Bureau can serve as a clearing house of information, and though its powers are merely advisory and its decisions and recommendations have no binding force, yet from its experience and the results of its investigations it can contribute often towards the settlement of serious controversies.

Standards of service naturally lead to proper conditions of maintenance, and the Bureau of Standards has been able to study such questions as the effects of electrolysis on gas and water mains due to stray currents from the return conductors of trolley lines. In several important instances there has resulted a satisfactory solution of serious differences between local authorities, street railways and gas and water corporations, due to finding improved methods of arranging for the return of the current, incidentally more economical for the railway.

#### WEIGHTS AND MEASURES IN THE HOUSEHOLD

Of a popular character, but none the less valuable on that account, is a manual of "Measurements for the Household" recently prepared by the Bureau of Standards, which is now available for distribution in much the same way as the *Farmers' Bulletins* of

the Department of Agriculture. The importance of this subject to domestic economy along with the high cost of living and other conditions may not be at first apparent, much less its dependence upon scientific research. Yet almost everything purchased, unless it be by numerical count, must be weighed or measured, and the cost thereof depends directly upon the quantity as given by the weighing or measuring device. Likewise electricity for light or power is sold

by the measurement of a meter which comparatively few can read, much less understand, as is also the gas for heat or light; electric lamps are purchased on a basis of having been standardized to give so much light under specified conditions.

In other pages of the manual we find that a certain amount of fuel will produce a maximum amount of heat if used in certain ways determined by scientific investigation as most efficient and economical. So many pounds of ice should produce so many units of refrigeration if used under conditions specially determined, such a quality and arrangement of incandescent lamps are best suited for the eye and for maximum light at minimum expense, and thus through a number of chapters where the application of scientific measurement and applied science is brought in simple language and in a useful way direct to the home and employed to the advantage of the individual.

Accordingly, from the farmhouse to the rolling mill turning out rails for the railway is indeed a wide range, but everywhere the Bureau of Standards aims to assist industry and the individual citizen, and it can be safely asserted that it has proved wonderfully successful in turning to practical advantage its unique experiments. It is for this reason that Congress has seen fit from time to time to extend the scope of activity of this great National Bureau, and every such move has received the support of manufacturing, engineering and industrial interests generally. Standardization and interchangeability in all efforts lead to increased efficiency, and when they become nation-wide the benefits are distributed correspondingly to the industry of the nation at large and to the individual in particular.

# FARMING APPALACHIA

BY J. RUSSELL SMITH

[This is a story of the typical farming family in "Appalachia"—our own Southern mountainous region,—whose dwellers are the victims of an economic tragedy in a country that would have been capable of becoming an agricultural Eden if the people had had the good fortune to follow an agriculture befitting their environment. Also by way of sharp and illuminating contrast, the author tells us of the profitable agriculture of the mountain farmer of Corsica, who uses no plow, and whose land has a steep, roof-like slope, yet whose soil suffers no erosion after hundreds of years of cultivation. The Appalachian mountain farmer, with his cabin and his corn patch, is a tyro in comparison with this Corsican, who has a chestnut orchard and a stone house. The point of this interesting and informing tale is that we should teach our American mountain farmer true mountain agriculture, to the end that he may not only prosper, but that his soil may still be left uneroded and intact for him and for his children.—THE EDITOR.]



FRUITING BRANCH OF  
THE WILD PERSIMMON  
(North Georgia hills)

THE woman was on her knees hoeing corn. She was on her knees because the hill was so steep that kneeling on its slope was easier than standing. I had passed her husband a mile below the store with a little steer dragging a narrow wooden sled over the stony trail. There was no room or road for wheels; and the sled has the great advantage of not running too fast downhill. It is the standard vehicle in many parts of Appalachia.

the woman, for I was a newcomer and wanted to know.

"Law, stranger, hit's too steep, en them rocks would start rollin' and run over half uv it. Many's the hill o' corn I've propped up with a rock to keep it from fallin' downhill." And she went on with her hoeing.

"Ya-a-s," said her husband a few minutes later, "I've clared me that there patch," 'n grubbed hit out—now I kin raise me two or three corn crops."

"What then?" I asked.

"When corn won't grow no more, I kin turn the field into grass a couple o' years."

"Then will you put in corn again?"

"Law, no; by that time hit will be so pore 'twouldn't raise a cuss-fight."

"Then you must begin all over again with a new one?"

"That's what we ben a-doin'," he laconically remarked.

There was not a horse or a mule in the little valley, and my newly found friend had plowed his new corn patch with the steer hitched to a "bull tongue" plow, a five-inch iron shovel bolted to a wooden bar. The corn patch would give him bread, the razor-thin hogs foraging in the wooded hills would provide meat without labor, and in the fall he might sell the steer to get a little money, for the cow out in the bushes had a calf by her side. The log cabin, comprising one room and a lean-to kitchen, had been produced from local logs, stones, and clay, and sheltered the tired-looking wife and the six little children. The whole scene was typical; typical mountain valley, typical corn patch, typical cabin, typical family, typical in its hospitality.

"Won't you wait, stranger, and have a bite o' dinner with us? We got plenty o'



GULLIES, TWO HUNDRED FEET DEEP. ON THE SLOPES OF SIERRA NEVADA MOUNTAINS, SPAIN  
(The smooth tops are all of the original surface remaining after centuries of plow agriculture)

old cornbread and sow-belly," — typical mountain menu.

#### TRYING TO FARM MOUNTAIN SIDES BY LEVEL- LAND METHODS

The mountaineer is poor in a rich environment. His living, like that of the rest of the human race, depends directly or indirectly upon plants. In these mountains with their magnificent climate, every condition for plant growth is good,—heat, light, moisture, and fertility. In three of these respects the Appalachian district is in many parts unusually blessed. It has a heavy rainfall, heavier than the surrounding lowlands. The temperature is so controlled by elevation that there are large areas in the so-called thermal belts where there is unusual immunity from late spring and early autumn frost. The fertility of many localities is much above average, and the soils are of surprising depth.

These conditions should make an agricultural Eden, but they have only made a slum with a high death rate; a scattered slum of log hovels that would come into violent conflict with the sanitary regulations of a hundred municipalities. This fine country would probably have become the agricultural Eden of which it is capable if the people had had the good fortune to follow an agriculture that fit their environment. They are the victims of an economic tragedy—the attempt to practise level-land agriculture on the unmitigated mountain side.

#### DISASTROUS SUMMER FRESHETS

This Anglo-Saxon, with the level-land plow agriculture, entered the mountain, felled

its rich forest of fine trees, scratched the sloping earth with a plow and planted corn—corn, the great king crop of the level country. Before this mountain corn crop can ripen, it must be subjected to many rains. Unfortunately, the typical summer rain of the mountains is a tearing, pouring thunderstorm which lets loose on an acre of ground, one, two, three, and even four hundred tons of rushing water in a single hour. It is therefore in the due course of nature that the earth should be washed away. To the man from the moon it would probably appear that that was our chief object. The earth being deprived of its protection of forest and roots, the gashing and loosening by the plow and hoe seem to be a further special preparation for its complete removal by the rushing waters. The light, loamy soil which, if properly cared for, might make a thousand or ten thousand crops, is gone in a few seasons, and merely serves to choke the meadows below and to hinder navigation of the valley streams.

#### WHY THE MOUNTAINEER MAKES CORN WHISKEY

This hideous, frightful, bootless waste does not (like some others) have even the palliative of enriching one generation of men. The process of corn-growing is so laborious on this steep, stumpy, and often rocky new ground that the poor mountaineer gets but a meager crop. In the effort to make much value from little corn, he turns to the distillery to make corn whisky. This has always seemed a natural right to the hard-pressed mountaineer; hence the century-long





SLOPE COVERED WITH OAK TREES PROPERLY THINNED OUT FOR MAXIMUM ACORN AND PORK PRODUCTION  
(Grafted oak tree in left foreground. Majorca Island)

conflict between the moonshiners and the collectors of internal revenue. The illicit still yet runs in Appalachia, and in many localities the man who has shot a Federal revenue officer is a local hero.

sticks its roots between the rocks and thrives, perhaps even the better, as rocks on the surface check evaporation and keep the moisture in the earth.

#### CHESTNUT ORCHARDS

#### A CONTRAST—THE MOUNTAIN FARMERS OF CORSICA

Great is the contrast between these poor, uncomfortable, whisky-cursed, law-breaking mountaineers of Appalachia and the comfortable, prosperous inhabitants of similar but less favored slopes in Corsica. I have traversed miles of utilized mountain slopes in Corsica with the angle of a house-roof. The slope was steep, but it was a good road that wound in and out along its face, and the motoring was fine. At intervals we passed through villages of substantial stone houses, with well-built churches, well-stocked stores, and often having comfortable inns. The people here were farmers who made their living from these slopes despite the house-roof steepness. A genuine mountain agriculture has been developed here, a tree agriculture which prospers without the plow and its attendant erosion. The tree is an engine of production that can utilize the heat, light, moisture, and fertility of the mountain without imposing upon man the fearful task of plowing a place that was never meant for the plow. If, perchance, the mountain happens to be so rocky that plowing is impossible, it makes no difference to the tree. It

I recall a stretch in Northeastern Corsica where, except for a few breaks not over 100 yards each, I passed for fifteen miles through an open forest of chestnut trees, and *every tree* was grafted to a heavy yielding variety. These forests are really orchards, the sustenance of the people in the frequent villages. The chestnut is to them what corn is to the Appalachian mountaineer, and more, for does not a chestnut tree once established last through two or three generations of men? There is always, so I was told, a crop, a large crop succeeding a smaller one, as is the case with many crop-yielding trees. Time and again I was told in Corsica and in France, by growers, merchants, and government officials, that the average annual yield of a good mature chestnut orchard was from 2000 to 3000 pounds of nuts per acre.

This nut is food for man and beast. It is also the money crop to pay for purchases from the outside world. The Corsican mountaineer eats his chestnuts fresh, boiled, roasted, made into mush, baked on the grid-dle, fried in oil, baked into a loaf, and also in a few other ways.

After the human harvesters have picked up the best of the nuts, the pigs are turned

in to finish it, and a good pig will add unto himself two pounds of weight per day for a couple of months, after which, at the beginning of winter, he is salted down for future reference.

This is not all. There is pasture beneath the chestnut trees, for they are not allowed to make a dense shade. They produce better if the sunshine can fall on all of the branches. This permits some grass and bushes to grow. Pigs, cows, mules, and goats, especially goats, browse beneath the trees. Goats'-milk cheese is an export of Corsica, and it is worthy of note that a balanced ration is furnished by the starchy chestnut bread and the cheese from the goat that browses beneath the tree. It is a standard and by no means bad-tasting meal in many Mediterranean mountain districts. The goat, which, in proportion to size and food consumed, is the greatest milk-giver in captivity, thus serves an important part in adjusting agriculture to the environment.

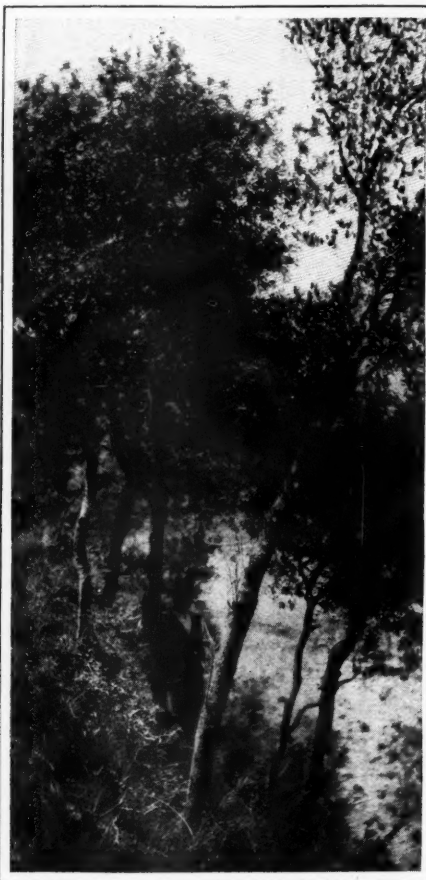
So far as I know, I have not seen one ungrafted chestnut tree among many thousands in Corsica. The seedling nut tree is nearly always a scrub, and the grafted ones are all geniuses, i.e., lineal descendants of the Napoleons and George Washingtons among trees.

#### VALUABLE TREE FARMS

It is easy to see that high values should attach to a tree that lives for a century or two, produces regularly of valuable crops without labor and sells for much good money when it is finally felled. I was repeatedly told by reliable Corsicans that while unplanted

land has practically no value, these orchards were worth from \$150 to \$250 per acre. That puts Appalachia to shame, and compares well with Illinois corn land values. One of their methods of calculating the value

of the orchards is a curious compliment to the value of the tree. The bearing capacity of the tree is estimated by an expert. This is multiplied by five centimes per kilogram of bearing capacity. This result is reduced by one-third for the cost of picking up, and this result, the earning power of the tree, is multiplied by twenty to give the value of the tree. The land is thrown in for nothing. Thus a tree yielding 200 kilograms (220 lbs.) is worth 133.4 francs, and ten such trees would make an acre of land worth 1334 francs, or more than \$250. As the trees get old and must be cut out, they are worth their cost. Hence the high rate (twenty-fold) of capitalizing the earning power of the tree. It is merely the buying of salable and non-depreciating property.



VERY STEEP EVERGREEN OAK HOG PASTURE  
(One-half mile from gullied slope shown on page 330)

#### ADVANTAGES OF TERRACING

These values and incomes, and this permanence show that the Appalachian mountaineer, with his

cabin and corn patch, is a tyro in comparison to the Corsican with his stone house and his chestnut orchard. The gullies, the erosion, and the soil destruction of that Appalachian corn patch show it to be the trade mark of agricultural savagery. It is worse than the work of the Indian who killed buffaloes and cut out their tongues, leaving the rest for the wolves and the buzzards. The buffaloes that remained bred again and replaced their numbers faster than



TERRACED GARDENS AND LITTLE WHEAT-FIELDS BESIDE A VILLAGE INHABITED BY CORSICAN CHESTNUT FARMERS

the geologic forces replace eroded soil. In contrast to the fierce gulying of Appalachia, the Corsican chestnut orchard still holds its productive soil at the end of centuries. The trees and the bushes keep the soil intact and it yields on and on and on. A little of the Corsican hill land is cultivated in gardens, wheat, and hay, but the hill is first terraced to prevent erosion and make easy tillage. It is not generally considered profitable to terrace this way in America, but I am of the opinion that in many cases our mountaineer would find it more profitable to make *good little permanent terraced fields* than continually to make so many larger, poor, new ones in which he and his woman laboriously fight with stumps, sprouts, and rocks while the fertility and the soil are escaping them.

#### WHY NOT A MOUNTAIN AGRICULTURE?

If it sounds harsh to call the Appalachian Mountaineer an agricultural savage, I hasten to state that we should not blame him. He is doing the best he can. He knoweth naught of Corsica. He is practising the agriculture of the level lands from which he came. He should be taught better, and that is the task of the schools and of the great organizations that we have built up for the dissemination of agricultural knowledge. We have a Federal Department of Agriculture, many State departments, State colleges, State experiment stations, sub-stations, and a host of peripatetic demonstrators. Can they not

among them develop and teach a mountain agriculture that will make the mountaineer prosperous and leave him his mountain?

#### NUT TREES FOR MOUNTAIN FARMS

Let no one make the mistake of thinking that I am urging all Appalachia to go growing chestnuts. The chestnut is merely one and not necessarily the best one of a dozen or more fruitful trees, each capable, like the chestnut, of being made an engine for the production of great crops. From among this dozen there should be four or five that can be grown on every mountain farm, thereby making it as prosperous and as valuable as the Corsican forests, and at the same time keeping the soil from erosion.

With regard to this tree agriculture we stand just inside the boundaries of a new epoch. In the Nineteenth Century men took the seven elementary machines, added to them the new force of steam, and made an indefinite number of new combinations that have given us an age of machinery. And now comes heredity, applied heredity, called Mendel's law, by which we know how to breed plants. As was steam to the elements of machinery, so is plant-breeding to the plants by which we live.

Completed experiments in breeding chestnuts illumine the whole vast field. As is well known, a blight is devastating the native chestnut forests from Massachusetts to Pennsylvania and Virginia. This magnificent

native tree, worth in the forests probably \$300,000,000, seems doomed. Are we forever forbidden to grow chestnuts? Not at all. The blight comes from Asia where chestnuts are hardened to it. For some reason our small native chinkapin is also immune. The chinkapin, though very sweet, is too small to be of any commercial value. The Japanese chestnut is very large and prolific, but too tasteless to be of any commercial value. These two were crossed by Dr. Van Fleet, now of the Federal Department of Agriculture, and the hybrid, partaking of the sweetness of the chinkapin, is sweet enough for the market, and, partaking of the size of the Japanese parent, it is large enough to be commercially profitable. Being from two hardy parents, it seems practically proof to the blight.

At the mere mention of tree crops and tree breeding, nearly every one shivers with doubt, for before his mind rises the thought of time, vast stretches of time. Too slow! too long to wait! It does sound bad, until one knows. It commonly takes the wild chestnut tree in the woods fifteen to twenty-five years to come into bearing, but Dr. Van Fleet crossed two chestnut blossoms in 1903, and in 1913 he harvested the great-great-grandchild of that union. That is to say, he had the fruit from the fourth generation of trees grown from the first hybrid nut. The last one emerged from the nut as a sprout in the spring of 1912 and ripened thirty-two nuts in September, 1913, seventeen months later,—two growing seasons. Two of the four generations required two seasons each, and two of them required three seasons each. The first year, 1903, was required to produce the hybrid nut. Thus the hybrid nut and four generations of fruiting offspring were produced in the years 1903-1913 inclusive, and before the chestnut blight has made its final kill we have a very promising substitute for the victim.

The plant-breeding business depends upon two facts: first, the constant variation of individuals of common parentage; second, the blending or mixing of the qualities of both parents. Those persons who are impressed by the time element forget that precocity also is one of the qualities in which there is great variation. Dr. Van Fleet has taken advantage of this and has brought the chestnut into the class with the strawberry and the raspberry so far as the gap between seed time and harvest is concerned. Identical results were also obtained with the chestnut by Mr. Riehl of Illinois.

There are two lessons in these chestnut facts. The Corsican farmer has merely propagated the best trees that chance produced. Dr. Van Fleet, replacing chance by science, has set out to improve the best that chance can do. Both of these lines of work need to be prosecuted with vigor. The creation of new types must be done mainly by the institutions that are created for scientific work, although it is rare fun for individuals of a certain scientific type of mind to whom work is its own reward.

The other type of this work, the propagation of best trees, is something that individuals can do for their own profit either as nurserymen or farmers. Where are these best parent trees? It is really quite a task to find and examine the 100 best walnut or persimmon trees in ten States. Here the individuals will need aid from the State and national departments of agriculture, for this survey work is preëminently in their field.

Great things are to be done in this Twentieth Century by plant-breeding, but surprising things can be done at once if we follow the Corsican example and propagate the best trees that nature has already produced. Appalachia has but to reach out her hand and take an agriculture that is far superior to her present gullied, peripatetic corn patch.

I do not venture to state the full list of crops in this new agriculture. The full list can only be made up by much survey and experiment, but there are several that have already demonstrated themselves as being good yielders, hardy, and capable of growing without the plow. Of these I would mention the mulberry, the persimmon, the honey locust, the oaks (several varieties) and the Persian or English walnut. The pawpaw and the pecan are nearly proved candidates for admission to this class, while the blight-proof chestnut will be here ready for propagation before we can get the conservative of the hills waked up, converted, and taught the methods of its utilization. This tree corn of the future will probably be, like the grass corn of to-day, the king crop of the mountain agriculture.

#### CROPS SUITABLE FOR PIG FOOD

Five of the eight tree crops I have enumerated, the mulberry, the persimmon, the honey locust, the acorn, and the chestnut, are primarily forage crops, chiefly pig feed, but good also for poultry, sheep, goats, and cows. Only two, the Persian walnut and the pecan, are primarily human foods. The pig also dearly loves both of these, but



they are too good for him. This emphasis upon pig food rather than human food is very, very important. Human conservatism makes us adopt new foods very slowly. It is financial peril to grow them. The area of one Appalachian county in full-bearing pecan trees of the best varieties would so paralyze the market of 1916 that the price would probably tumble 75 to 85 per cent. On the contrary, an added area of 100 counties in maximum hog production would not ruffle the price of pork. We are curtailing our use of it from sheer shortage and near-famine prices. Two hundred million people in Europe yearn to add a second meal of sausage per week to their monotonous dietary. No, pig growing is not exactly romantic, but it is safe. The pig market will not be glutted.

For the pig it would merely be a "back-to-nature movement." His first frisky weeks would be spent in the spring sunshine of grassy coves. Then on the lower slopes he would deftly pick up sugary mulberries from May to August. In September he would seek out the persimmon trees higher up, and there grow into a sturdy porker to climb yet higher and fatten himself for the winter hibernation on sweet acorns and the yet sweeter chestnuts. Just here the back-to-nature part of it ends. Instead of dozing the winter through in a bed of leaves at the root of a big tree, living on his fat, our porker reposes in various neat packages labelled "Homespun Lard," "High Point Breakfast Bacon," "Virginia Ham," and *we* are living on the fat. For this reason we should convert the forest of scrubs into an open park of beautiful, fruitful trees from beneath which the animals themselves could harvest most of the crop, and where roots hold the fertile earth from generation to

generation. The present pork supply is commonly furnished by scrub razor-backs, running wild and eating the fruits of wild trees. It is no change in principle to substitute well-bred pigs and well-bred trees.

#### NATIVE NUT TREES

All of the eight tree crops I mention are now growing wild or nearly wild in parts of Appalachia, and each of them is capable of being grafted on wild trees which are very widely distributed, practically tree weeds.

Thus, the common native mulberry can be grafted to the "ever-bearing" sorts which yield very heavily of nutritious fruit for from eight to twelve weeks. Carolina farmers aver that one mulberry tree will feed one pig for two months. The persimmon, said to be the most nutritious fruit grown in the United States, is regarded as a pestiferous tree weed by the mountain farmer because it is so very hard to kill. It can be grafted, and many wild trees suitable for propagation load themselves to the breaking point. The oaks have long



PECAN TREE, BEARING FOUR YEARS AFTER GRAFTING

been grafted by gardeners in England and America and by farmers in Spain, and I submit, pending proof or disproof by the agricultural scientists (who have yet no exact data) that several American species of oaks will produce as much profit from pork fattening on mountain sides as will corn, and preserve the mountain side where corn now destroys.

The pawpaw, a banana-like fruit, relished by people as well as animals, grows on a graftable tree common in Appalachia. The honey locust, a tree producing a bean that is a good bran substitute and therefore excellent for cows, will propagate from root shoots without even the bother of grafting. The chestnut can be grafted. The pecan is

now being grafted on native hickory stocks, and the Persian walnut is thriving on native black walnut stocks. While the ease of performing the operation on different species varies greatly, grafting is not a difficult operation. Frequently have I taught unlettered Appalachian mountaineers to graft chestnuts with a good degree of success. I could teach ten of them in a forenoon, and it would be entirely immaterial if none of them knew the difference between a and b. I would merely demand enough intelligence to catch a 'possum or a rabbit.

If any enthusiast should tell the mountaineer to go plant a farm of these tree crops, the mountaineer would laugh with derision. He would say that he wanted a crop this year, and he would be speaking the truth. He must *grow* into it, not *go* into it. That is the way things succeed, by evolution rather than by revolution. *If he knew how to graft, and had the scions from good trees*, almost any mountain farmer could put in a few hundred grafts each spring. He has wild trees that stand in his fence rows, in his fields, in his yard, awaiting conversion by grafting. Grafted mulberry trees can be bought in North Carolina for six cents each, and if the demand arises, all of the trees will doubtless be grown commercially for sale at reasonable prices.

#### TREE CLUBS FOR BOYS AND GIRLS

What should be the actual program? The State and national departments of agriculture should hunt out the best parent trees of the species mentioned and systematically examine the whole list of wild fruiting trees. They should also breed better ones than nature has produced and disseminate the best. They should seek out, and if possible, improve upon the best methods of propagating. The processes of education should also be brought to bear upon the problem. At every mountain school the boy and girl

should be taught the important facts about the crop-yielding trees, and they should be taught how to propagate them with their own hands. The grafting and budding of trees is work that girls can do as well as or even better than boys. It requires deftness and accuracy, not strength. Why not have grafting contests between schools, counties, States? Does not the hope of the future lie with the children? Pig clubs, corn clubs, canning clubs, are doing much to advance agriculture in the plains and why not work out some such scheme suited to mountain minds and conditions?

Specimen trees should be planted in or adjacent to every school ground in all Appalachia. They would serve both as parent trees for propagation, and also for object lessons. Horticultural missionaries should go out into the hills to talk to and show those who are too old to go to school. By these very simple means, a revolution would be started which would put a new face upon the mountain, a new mind in the mountaineer, a new civilization where now we recognize a problem.

At present, in the rocky, stumpy, rooty clearing, the mountain farmer, often aided by his wife and children, has a hard fight to make and till a little field of gullying corn. When he gets his land established in grafted cropping trees that require no plowing and produce crops that can be largely harvested by the pigs, turkeys, sheep, cows, and goats, he can, with the same labor, look after ten or twenty times as much land. The communities of such farmers will be rich. Instead of living on a trail, the farmer will live on a road, as the Corsican chestnut-grower does. Instead of having missionaries go beg for him as they now must, he will be able to send his children to school. An agriculture that is adjusted to both the market and the producing environment is bound to bring prosperity.



CAROLINA PORKERS JOYFULLY HARVESTING THE MULBERRY CROP



DEFORESTED AND TERRACED MOUNTAINS IN SHANSI PROVINCE, CHINA. NEAR THE CITY OF WU-TAI-SHAN.  
(Showing laborious methods necessary in order to produce crops from deforested slopes)

# RESTORING CHINA'S FORESTS

A NEW AMERICAN INFLUENCE IN THE EMPIRE

BY THOMAS H. SIMPSON

**I**N the summer of 1910 an exposition held in Nanking included among its features an athletic meet to which came the teams of the twelve Christian colleges of China. These young Chinese, with their fine physiques and Occidental speech and manners, represented the most progressive element of the country. They were full of the spirit of the new China,—which after centuries of inertia is beginning to stir a people of four hundred million souls to an awakening fraught with consequences to the rest of the world.

## AN AMERICAN SOLDIER-TOURIST SEES THE RUIN AND THE REMEDY

Among the spectators was an American soldier, who in traveling through China had been impressed by the barren aspect of sections that were nevertheless teeming with people. Save in the neighborhood of shrines and temples, he had not seen a tree for hundreds of miles. Mud was the common building material, and grass and dried manure the usual fuel. Watersheds were utterly devoid of vegetation, so that the land was subject to alternate droughts and inun-

dations, with their accompaniments of pestilence and famine. Any thoroughgoing attempt to remedy this situation, the visitor decided, would involve reforestation, and an extensive movement of this kind would have to be supported by the people,—a preliminary consideration which presented a difficult obstacle. From the spectacle of the Christian students at the games, however, came an idea: These educated young men could become the means of propagating the plan among the masses.

The American soldier was Major George P. Ahern, U. S. A., at that time director of the Philippine Bureau of Forestry. Before Gifford Pinchot had risen to prominence as the foremost conservationist in America, Ahern had been preaching the doctrine in the West; upon the occupation of the Philippines by the United States he introduced it to the Filipinos, and now he wanted to spread it among a people whose suffering as the penalty of deforestation has long been instanced as the most horrible example of its kind in the world.

This desire and the efforts which pro-

ceeded from it are largely responsible for the development of a new and important American force in China. Under American influence and American methods one of China's most pressing and obvious problems is being attacked, with excellent prospects of ultimate success. And if the effort is of importance to China, it is of much significance to America; for it means that, while Japan and the European powers are jealously maneuvering for political and commercial supremacy in China, America is quietly exerting a beneficial force which is producing results that, being tangible, can be felt and appreciated by those who are affected. It is one of the agencies which can relieve the terrible economic pressure under which China's enormous population labors, the easing of which is bound to hasten political and industrial progress. Stirring restively to the call of a new age, China is potentially one of the great nations of the world. Her metamorphosis necessarily must have an important relationship to the industrial and commercial expansion of other countries; and we can expect to benefit from the change just so much as we take part in it.

#### REFORESTING KIAU-CHAU: GERMANY'S ENERGY AND PATIENCE

This not entirely altruistic view was prominent in Major Ahern's scheme. It was not, however, wholly original with him. The Germans were powerfully actuated by it in Kiau-Chau, where the Chinese of today really first learned the value of forestry, as indicated by a report made two years ago by Herr Malte Haas, forestmeister of Kiau-Chau, on the example furnished by the reforestation of the German territory:

"It was a great thing," wrote Herr Haas, "that this work of Kultur, a work free of all political friction, could remain to be carried out under German influence, so that German thought and sentiment might be propagated in the remotest confines of the land."

Evidently Herr Haas entertained no suspicion that the Far-Eastern seat of Kultur was to fall after a spectacular siege into the hands of the Japanese.

When the Germans took possession of Kiau-Chau eighteen years ago the entire territory was practically devoid of vegetation. The hills, once covered with verdure, stood out bare and jagged like the teeth of a saw, their sides ravined and gullied by erosion, from which harbor and roadstead were being

filled up with silt. Trees had to be imported and, to give them earth in which to grow, soil actually had to be carried on men's backs from the ravines up to ledges and holes hewn in the solid rock, from which the humus had been washed away. Nearly 600 tree species from all parts of the world were planted in the early experiments, before suitable varieties were found. The first year many of the seedlings were killed by frost, the next by a plague of caterpillars, and it took three years to educate the inhabitants of the nearby villages to refrain from pulling up the saplings for firewood as fast as they were set down.

The conditions which the Germans had to remedy in building their model colony in Kiau-Chau exist practically throughout China, except in the inaccessible mountain districts. The plains are treeless; in the foothills occasional patches of shrubbery are found where forests flourished less than a century ago; in the mountains the work of cutting the last stands is going on. Wood for structural purposes is almost prohibitive in price, the product of the mountain forests being consumed mostly in the manufacture of coffins. Brush faggots and charcoal are luxuries for the wealthy. The farmers and villagers burn dried manure, grass, stubble and roots, gathered by men and boys, who scrape the ground with iron hooks that leave hardly a vestige of the humus necessary to maintain the soil's fertility.

#### FLOODS AND FAMINES CAUSED BY LACK OF FORESTS

Most of the famines which are mentioned frequently in newspaper dispatches from China in connection with Red Cross appeals for assistance are due indirectly to these conditions; for they follow the alternate floods and droughts which are caused by deforestation of the watersheds. The lack of domestic timber is a serious impediment to industry; and the fact that most of the rivers contain water only during the rainy season precludes the possibility of irrigation, cheap transportation, and water power. The few great rivers which contain water all the year round overflow annually, destroying numberless lives and untold property. The Hoang-Ho, for example, after forming in 1852 a new mouth some 250 miles north of its old one, turned south again in 1886, devastating some 25,000 square miles of one of the most thickly populated agricultural sections, and causing a loss, according to Chinese accounts, of



seven million lives. Authenticated records show that at least two millions perished in this single inundation.

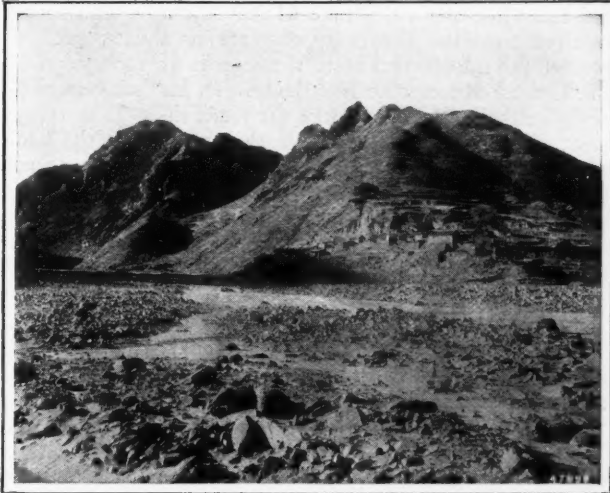
Naturally, then, the Chinese were impressed when they saw in Kiau-Chau the changes brought about by reforestation. The governors of several provinces sent officials to attend a course in forestry at Tsing-Tau and the central government at Peking employed a number of German foresters to formulate a system of forest management to be introduced throughout the country, a department of forestry being established with headquarters at Mukden, Manchuria.

Major Ahern appreciated the value of the Germans' work; but he felt that the reforestation movement, in order to be truly successful, should be furthered by the people themselves. With this in mind he called on United States Minister Calhoun at Peking and arranged a conference with several prominent Chinese. What was needed, he told them, was a popular educational campaign, and this, he insisted, must be carried on mostly by Chinese; for it is the universal experience that such a public reform must proceed from the people. In the United States, for instance, the West swallowed hard on conservation when it came from the lips of Easterners, but it spread more easily when expounded by native sons educated in the East and sent back as rangers and supervisors in the government service.

#### CHINESE STUDENTS INVITED TO THE PHILIPPINE FORESTRY SCHOOL

His hearers were unanimous in assent; but none of them was able to suggest a solution. In fact, the problem seemed unsolvable until, after the Nanking exposition, when Major Ahern had returned to Manila, his idea crystallized into this: If he could not start a popular reforestation movement in China, he could at least start it in the Philippines with Chinese students such as he had seen at the Christian games.

The advantage of this plan struck the Philippine University board of regents as obvious; for the future of the islands is intimately connected with the interests and poli-



BOTTOM LANDS BURIED IN WASTE FROM EROSION CAUSED BY DEFORESTATION OF MOUNTAINS. WU-TAI-SHAN, SHANSI PROVINCE, CHINA

cies of the neighboring countries. Incidentally, it is a pertinent fact, that whatever prestige the United States enjoys in China, despite the avid encroachments of England, Germany, Russia, and Japan, and our own lethargic diplomacy, is quite generally attributed to the influence of the students who got their education from America.

So Major Ahern wrote to the American consul-general at Shanghai, asking to be put in touch with the leading American colleges in China, with a view to placing a limited number of Chinese students in the Philippine forest school at Los Baños. He then broached the subject to the Famine Relief Committee at Shanghai and the Chinese Chamber of Commerce at Manila. These bodies gladly agreed to share the expenses of the students. The first Chinese student arrived at Los Baños in the spring of 1912; two came in 1913, and three in 1914.

In casting about now for a means of introducing his plan into China itself, Major Ahern learned that a progressive young Chinese named Ngan Han, who was an alumnus of the American college at Nanking and had taken a post-graduate course in forestry at Ann Arbor, Michigan, had become head of the Department of Forestry in Peking. At Ahern's invitation, Han visited the Philippines in the spring of 1914 and spent three months in office and field studying the American's methods. Upon his return to China he used the Philippine forestry regulations for a pattern upon which to draft a new code to be promulgated by President Yuan

Shi-kai. Just about this time Major Ahern received from the University of Nanking a request for information as to the records of the Chinese students at Los Baños. In his reply he took occasion to urge the establishment of a forest school at Nanking, suggesting possible sources of funds, proffering the assistance of himself and his associates, and pointing out that instructors could be obtained among the Chinese who would soon be graduated from Los Baños.

#### A SUCCESSFUL EXPERIMENT AT NANKING

In the meantime, an American missionary named Joseph Bailie, Professor of Agriculture in Nanking University, unconsciously had been paving the way. Six years ago the Hwai River surged up in one of its periodical inundations, but this time with more than ordinary severity. The city of Nanking, long the storm center of wars and famines, became overrun by a countless horde of destitute, starving refugees, who died like flies. Thousands of them besieged the University for relief, and Professor Bailie, who took charge of this work, conceived the idea of developing the slopes of Purple Mountain, a tall peak overlooking the city, so as to furnish permanent homes and a livelihood to the refugees. To this end a local branch of the Chinese Colonization Association was formed, supported mainly by wealthy Chinese, and directed by Professor Bailie. A start was made with a thousand-acre tract.

Only a part of the land was tillable, and even that much was literally covered with grave mounds, which are a difficult problem throughout China on account of the lack of regulated cemeteries and the people's superstitious fear of disturbing the dead. Professor Bailie knew that he would have to break through an age-old barrier of superstition; but he ordered his workmen to exhume the coffins. Most of the graves were so old as to contain no longer any trace of their erstwhile occupants. Just as Professor Bailie expected, however, the "gentry" of the neighborhood foregathered to protest this desecration of their ancestors' resting-places, and sent a delegation to see him.

Professor Bailie argued that the dead did not need so much land, whereas the hundreds of living employed in breaking up the land would otherwise die of hunger. Besides, he pointed out, most of the graves were empty and ownerless, but wherever a corpse was found, it was boxed up respectfully and reinterred where it could be easily located.

The deputation pondered for a few minutes, until the spokesman remarked, "The foreigner isn't far astray," and they went away satisfied.

The colonization plan was so successful that the Chinese government gave the association an addition of ten thousand acres on Purple Mountain. Inasmuch as most of this area could not be cultivated, Professor Bailie planted it with trees, in patches of forty to fifty acres. Between the patches wide fire-breaks were established, cultivated as "farms" by refugees.

#### A CHINESE FOREST SCHOOL STARTED

Thus the necessary field adjunct of a forest school was all prepared, as it were, when Major Ahern's letter reached Nanking. The University board of managers seized upon the suggestion eagerly, and after a rapid interchange of letters between Manila, Shanghai, and Nanking, the forest school was instituted on March 15 last. Ngan Han had obtained for the school a government appropriation of \$3000 and, at Major Ahern's solicitation, the Famine Relief Committee had provided for three scholarships and the maintenance of a Chinese graduate of Los Baños as instructor; five scholarships were given by the Governor of Anhwei, and an equal number by the Governor of Shantung, and experts from the Philippine Bureau of Forestry helped to organize the course of study. Seventeen students began the course, six of whom had attended the German Forest School in Kiau-Chau, which was discontinued at the outbreak of the war. Each student receives under his scholarship for tuition and maintenance seven hundred Chinese dollars to cover the entire course of four years. Technical instruction in forestry will not be given until the students have completed eighteen months of intensive study of English, as there are practically no textbooks on the subject in Chinese.

The American innovation already has produced a profound effect, the central government and the provinces as well all evincing intentions to foster the movement throughout the country. The Peking government has even established a national arbor day, patterned after the custom in the United States; and recently an American, W. F. Sherfesee, who succeeded Major Ahern as head of the Philippine Bureau of Forestry, signed a contract with the Chinese Government to act in an advisory capacity to the director of its rapidly growing Forest Service.

# PREPAREDNESS OF THE ARMY MEDICAL DEPARTMENT

COMBATING THE INVISIBLE HOST

BY ALTON G. GRINNELL

IF war must be, let us have as little unnecessary suffering as possible. The medical department of an army of to-day has two distinct functions,—prevention and cure. Previous to the present world conflict we had seen but one great war waged with the weapons of science against the invisible host. More insidious than shot and shell, their name is legion. They have always been upon the battle front awaiting all comers and showing a special disposition to fraternize with the unseasoned citizen-soldier, but until a few years ago we knew them not.

The medical student, bacteriologist and entomologist have cultivated their acquaintance that you and I may not have to be introduced. Sometimes this has been accomplished with impunity. Not seldom they have gotten the better of one or two of the investigators and these silent heroes have departed this world without beholding the fruition of their work. They truly have died that we might live. But in doing so they have left to mankind a definite knowledge which has made it possible for their co-workers to expurgate the foe. Thanks to the tenacity of will which has enabled such men to pursue a cherished purpose through a quarter of a century, we now have these parasites on the defensive. Their life habits have been catalogued and cross-referenced. So complete is this system of microscopic identification that most of them have already been rounded up. So many expert bacterio-criminologists are on the lookout for the balance that this sphere is no longer a really safe place for any life-loving bacteria.

Our own Army Medical Corps has furnished to the world what is probably the most striking example in the history of preventive medicine of the conquest of a great scourge by the extirpation of yellow fever through the discoveries of Reed, Carroll, and their colleagues, and the practical application of these discoveries by General Gorgas.

While the beautiful dream of "a truly sanitary army in which the bacteriologist

marches on the skirmish line, and the exhausted soldier waits by the well-curb for laboratory reports," is impossible from the scientific as well as the military point of view, the sanitary competence of the modern army is a thing to marvel at.

The Japanese went into the Russian campaign prepared as fully against bacilli as



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INOCULATING THE SOLDIER AGAINST TYPHOID

against bullets,—and at the end of that war their percentage of deaths from disease was the lowest ever known in any great campaign.

According to reliable reports, the fatalistic Turk, whose liability to disease was in exact ratio to his former disregard of sanitary precautions, now enjoys a health rate which compares favorably with that of any other army in Europe, thanks to the introduction of modern sanitary methods by the Germans.



THE FIELD HOSPITAL (IN THE FOREGROUND) ATTACHED TO THE CAMP OF UNITED STATES SOLDIERS

#### SAFEGUARDING AGAINST EPIDEMIC

Whereas the great generals of the past often saw their armies melt away with disease and apparent victory slip from their grasp, it is to-day within the power of the military sanitarian to control great pestilences, such as yellow fever, pernicious malaria, and the plague, and to immunize entire armies against cholera, dysentery, smallpox, and that disease which had such a sinister record in our own Spanish War,—typhoid fever.

Public opinion now demands that each enlisted man shall be surrounded as far as possible with all the safeguards known to modern science. If, unhappily, a great war should come upon us and we should see "the terrible and imposing spectacle of a nation in arms," would the medical department of our army be prepared to assume this task, and how could the potential soldier,—the citizen of to-day,—coöperate most successfully to relieve that department of the enormous strain which will always be thrust upon it during the period of expansion at the outbreak of war?

In the first place, we must squarely face the fact that the problem of preventing disease and caring for the wounded has so far swamped the medical department of every army in every great war. With hundreds of miles of trenches filled with rain-soaked men whose powers of resistance to disease have been tremendously weakened, with every possible handicap of modern warfare, the army surgeons of to-day must successfully combat that most subtle foe, the invisible host of parasites which prey upon men in the dark, which invariably hit a man when he isn't looking, when he is powerless to resist.

To oppose an army of any first-class power

we would need immediately at least 500,000 men. Our present standing army (in the United States) is about 50,000. Ninety per cent. of our forces would, therefore, be made up of State militia troops and volunteers. The vast majority of these have, in time of peace, been well fed, clothed and protected by warm houses from exposure to the elements. Modern municipal governments have provided them with an abundance of pure water, and promptly removed all wastes and filth. By force of custom the comforts, and even the luxuries of civil life have come to be regarded as necessities. When, however, these citizens become soldiers, all this will be rudely reversed. Colonel J. R. Kean, a noted army sanitarian, gives us this vivid word-picture of the enlisted civilian:

The luxuries and habits of a lifetime are stripped off by the rough hand of military necessity until he stands forth the fighting man of all the centuries, divested of everything except the weapon in his hands and the clothes on his back, cooking his simple evening meal before the fire, with the earth for his bed and the sky for his roof. He will often have to march all day in rain-soaked clothes and sleep on wet and frozen ground. He is obliged to drink such water as he can find, and usually has no means of boiling it, nor is he always able to protect himself from the filth of others.

During this reversion to primitive conditions the newly enlisted man will be under the close scrutiny of the army surgeon, who will study the reaction of the soldier to his environment and do his utmost to build up the individual so that he will develop the highest degree of resistance to disease.

How then would these 450,000 citizen soldiers be taken care of to-day as compared with the 216,000 troops that were in the field during the year of the Spanish War?





MAINTAINED AT TEXAS CITY FROM 1911 TO 1915

#### IMMUNITY FROM TYPHOID, THE MOST DANGEROUS OF CAMP DISEASES

Perhaps the one thing which would most immediately and vitally affect the recruit of to-day would be the procedure by which he would be completely immunized against typhoid fever. In 1898 we had about 25,000 cases of typhoid fever in the army; in 1913, the first year after the army had been completely immunized by vaccination, with 95,000 troops serving in the United States and all of our insular possessions, and with 10,000 men in camp along the Mexican border, we had four cases, two of which were recruits who had the disease before joining the army.

The humiliating experience of Chickamauga Park will not be repeated, thanks to the work of Sir A. Wright, of the Royal Army Medical Corps, and Major Frederick F. Russell, Medical Corps, U. S. A., and their collaborators.

In a recent address in which he urged the British soldiers to present themselves voluntarily for vaccination against typhoid fever, Sir William Osler stated that by this measure alone, if universal, the efficiency of the men in the field would be increased one-third.

The following remarkable statement by Dr. Osler graphically describes the true value of the preventive which makes possible the relegation to the medical museum of the bacillus which has been the cause of untold suffering and financial loss in all lands.

If, in spite of the doctor's care and his own personal activities, the soldier falls heir to a half-million germs of the unfriendly kind, he is spied out by the doctor at once and hustled off to an isolation hospital in order that he may not become a "carrier," that most dreaded of camp parasites, for in the proximity which must be extant in war time a "carrier" is much more dangerous than a lone submarine to a battleship fleet.

If the latter can keep out of sight long enough

it may get in its deadly work, but give a disease carrier the same privilege and he will most certainly infect a whole command.

Such is the power of the purely invisible microbe when once it finds itself free to roam in such verdant pastures as are to be found in the constitutionally weakened men in the rain-soaked trenches. Every other method known to modern science having been found to be impotent in the face of an unknown carrier, especial attention centers on that method which has been found by actual experience to give certain immunity from the most dangerous of camp diseases regardless of conditions.

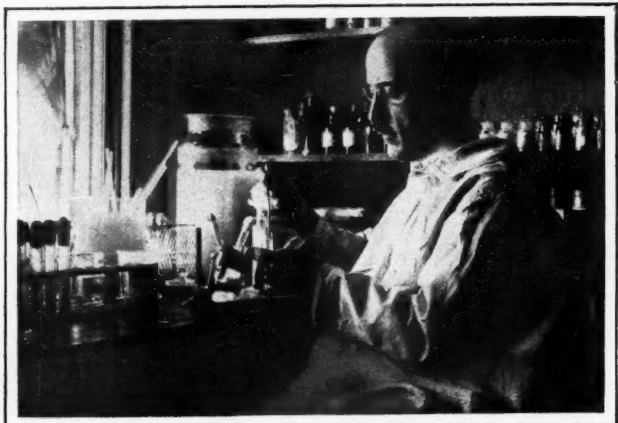
The entire efforts of many men for many years having placed in the hands of the proper authorities the weapon with which to successfully combat typhoid fever, it seems remarkable that in view of the statistics of former years which show that this disease alone is more than liable to decimate an army in a year's time, every soldier has not availed himself of the opportunity of taking this vital protection against the most potent of camp diseases. If some manufacturer could produce an armor which would weigh nothing and not be cumbersome, and would assuredly protect the soldier against the bullets and shrapnel shells of the enemy, it is not unlikely that every soldier would avail himself of this "immunity bath." But when protection is offered which will cost him not 1/25 the inconvenience of even the lightest armor, and which is proof against a foe more deadly than the enemy's bullets, it has been the experience of the armies that the soldiers did not freely avail themselves of this protection.

Typhoid fever is, therefore, no longer to be dreaded, either among the military or civil population of this country. Whenever the public comes to fully appreciate the value of this preventive and vaccination is universally practised, it is believed that typhoid fever will be as rare as typhus and cholera.

When we seriously consider the number of cases which occur in the United States every year (at least 350,000), one-tenth of which are fatal, and the further fact that thousands of those who do not die of the disease are permanently injured from damage to the heart, nervous system, kidneys, etc., the importance of this method of disease-prevention can hardly be over-estimated.

#### A PURE WATER SUPPLY ALWAYS AVAILABLE

Supplying pure water to the troops in the field is always one of the most gigantic tasks confronting a modern army. It is a serious question with most of the European armies to-day, and was a vexatious problem for the Anglo-French forces on the Gallipoli Peninsula. While a trained and seasoned trooper can readily make a day's march on a canteen of water, the "discipline" of the average volunteer is most severely tested when he is instructed to pass by a roadside pump. Any water that is cool, regardless of the number



PREPARING TYPHOID VACCINE, WHICH RENDERS THE SOLDIER IMMUNE FROM THE DISEASE THAT FORMERLY WAS SO GREAT A MENACE

flannel is fastened to the top of the bag, through which the water is poured. The starch iodine reaction gives exact information as to whether sufficient hypochlorite is being used. As these products are always furnished with the field medical equipment the medical officers have a practical method of control.

#### AN ADEQUATE MEDICAL PERSONNEL

of bacteria in it, looks good to the recruit.

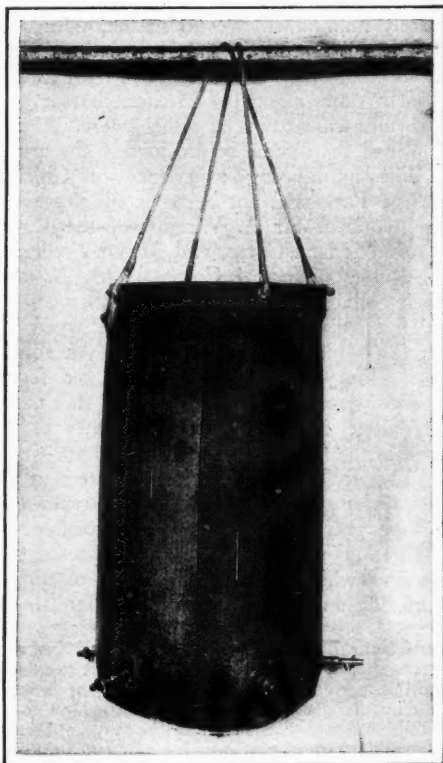
Also, the smoke and dust of battle cause the most intense thirst, which the soldier is inclined to slake whenever and wherever he can. Scientists have demonstrated that numerous infections find their way from person to person by the "water route," and the medical officers of all armies have endeavored for many years to perfect an apparatus which could be used for the purification of water, and which would at the same time be portable and efficient.

An apparatus devised by Major Wm. L. Lyster, Medical Corps, U. S. A., will, it is believed, make it possible to furnish pure water to either large or small bodies of men in any locality at any time. This appliance consists of a canvas bag of specially woven flax, twenty-four inches in diameter and twenty-eight inches long, which weighs, empty, about seven and one-half pounds, and holds sufficient water to supply a company of infantry at war strength with a canteen of water for each officer and man. The bag is fitted with five self-closing faucets just above the bottom seam, by means of which the water is drawn into the canteen, thus obviating the necessity of rehandling.

After the bag has been filled with water, one tube (about  $15\frac{1}{2}$  grains) of hypochlorite of calcium is shaken directly on the surface of the water, no stirring being necessary. Under ordinary circumstances the water is rendered safe for drinking purposes within five minutes.

Some surface waters in the field may carry suspended matters to an extent that interferes slightly with the hypochlorite process. To reduce this matter a piece of Scotch outing

tract surgeons on active duty. This is hardly adequate to do the work that is required in time of peace and carries no proper insurance against war. In war time ten medical officers are needed for every 1000



THE SIMPLE APPARATUS DEvised BY AN ARMY MEDICAL OFFICER TO HOLD, PURIFY, AND FURNISH DRINKING WATER TO THE SOLDIER

men for professional and administrative work. In time of peace at least seven should be provided, who should be trained in the specialty of the military surgeon. It is imperative that these should be regular medical officers who are familiar with the personal hygiene of soldiers and sanitation of camps in which large bodies of men are concentrated, the methods of supply and transportation, and military tactics. These will be immediately needed for positions requiring experienced supervision in the camps of mobilization and concentration, lest they become breeding places for epidemic diseases as in the Spanish War, and for the theater of operations, including the zone of advance.

The thousands of skilled medical men who will offer their services, and will assist to their utmost in emergency, can in no way take the place of trained medical officers whose military duties are vastly more complex. Their purely professional work will be needed in the general hospitals of the service of the interior in long campaigns, but if the army is dependent in a great degree upon improvised medical aid, it will suffer enormous and unnecessary losses.

#### RESERVE MEDICAL FIELD UNITS

The Dodge Commission, which was appointed just after the Spanish War to investigate the medical department, made most emphatic recommendations regarding the accumulation of reserve medical supplies,—“a year’s supply for an army at least four times the regular strength to be constantly on hand.”—and also recommended that the medical department should have charge of transportation to such an extent as would secure prompt shipment and ready delivery of all medical supplies.

The department now has in storage at the various medical supply depots a sufficient reserve of field medical units for an army of 200,000 men, or about one-half that recommended by the commission, and the Surgeon General hopes within a few years to be able to accumulate the total reserve recommended. These units comprise field, base and evacuation hospitals, regimental infirmaries, etc., and are complete in all essential particulars, excepting transportation, and may be ordered out from the supply depots by telegram whenever needed. The transportation problem has apparently been solved by placing a hospital corps man in charge to accompany

each important shipment to its destination.

A field medical supply depot is also available for the use of each chief surgeon, from which can be immediately obtained all the necessary vaccines, serums, medicines, etc. Soldiers who are engaged in trench warfare are usually plastered with mud or dust, and the character of bullet-wound infections is very deadly. Tetanus and gas gangrene have been much more common in the present European War than in former wars, and the administration of anti-tetanus serum has become almost a measure of first aid. Field laboratories, X-ray machines, etc., will also be available for the use of the bacteriologists and surgeons at the front.

#### CAMP SANITATION AND THE CITIZEN-SOLDIER,—PAST AND PRESENT

It is believed that the bitter lessons taught by the inefficiency and sickness of the Spanish War concentration camps, as contrasted so sharply with the almost ideal conditions which obtained in the camps on the Mexican border during the past two years, have made a profound impression upon the intelligent American mind of the “rank and file” which will constitute our army in any future war.

The line officers of our army have been so impressed with the value of sanitation and personal hygiene as demonstrated by the record of recent years that they are scarcely less enthusiastic than the medical officers, and the whole service has become imbued with the idea that to keep well is the crowning virtue.

The attitude of the medical officer toward his brothers of the line has best been expressed by Lieutenant Col. F. A. Winter, Medical Corps, U. S. A., in a lecture delivered at the War College some time ago:

In conclusion, please let me assure you that we are striving with thorough altruism to do our share in a great work. We want your help,—we must have it; and we also want that commendation which we know the line officer to hold in his heart of hearts for the hard-working doctor, who throughout the history of our army has taken his medicine,—in a two-fold sense,—right by the side of his brother of the line. To that brother he has the right to say:

“I have eaten your bread and salt,  
I have drunk your water and wine;  
The deaths ye died  
I have watched beside,  
And the lives ye have lived were mine.”



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

A GROUP OF TYPICAL TURKISH PEASANTS, ILLUSTRATING RACIAL CHARACTERISTICS

# TURKEY'S CALL TO AMERICA

BY REV. GEORGE F. HERRICK, D.D.

[The statements made in the following article derive especial weight from the fact that for more than half a century Dr. Herrick was a resident of Turkey, as a missionary of the American Board, and has an intimate acquaintance with all classes of the Turkish population. The article on the Kurds, immediately following this, is contributed by a young Persian, now a graduate student at the Johns Hopkins University. He also has a familiar knowledge of the people about whom he writes.—THE EDITOR.]

**P**ROBABLY ninety-nine out of every hundred readers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS to-day regard the Turk with the utmost loathing. The treatment of the Armenians by the men now in power at Constantinople has so completely out-Heroded Herod that any voice raised to speak a kindly word for the Turk is at once silenced.

If in Germany any utterance questioning the absolute justice of the government's relation to the present war is "*verboten*" [forbidden], what must be the case in Turkey?

Many years ago,—it was before Abdul Hamid's day,—I was traveling with post-horses in Asia Minor. The "driver" taken on at one station seemed a surly fellow and unlikely to add to the interest of the next stage of the journey. When we were out in the open country the man became completely transformed. Being "full of matter" and thinking he could speak to me freely and with safety, he criticized his government in very "choice" Turkish—the language lends itself to vituperation in a superlative degree—for the merciless rigor of its enforcement of conscription. His own home had been left hopelessly desolate.

Till the Turks, under German training, leadership, and supply of modern munitions, scored the success at the Dardanelles which has more than any other event of the war amazed men of the West, probably a large majority of Turks secretly cursed the men now in the government saddle for forcing them to fight against their old and tried friends, the French and the English. And it is certain from ample evidence, very little of which for obvious reasons can be produced in court, that millions of Turks regard the conduct of the men now ruling at Constantinople, in their treatment of the Armenians, as inhuman, contrary to their religion, and opposed to Turkish interests.

Our sympathy for the Armenian people, in their unparalleled sufferings, cannot be too deep or our condemnation of those responsible for those horrors and for the actual perpetrators of those atrocities too strong.

At present no man dare forecast Turkey's political future. As an independent government, to be reckoned with by world powers, she has no future, though she is just now under the illusion that her future is to rival the glory of her past.



If and when the Allied Powers are victorious the present hopes of the Turks will vanish. Should Germany win in the war, Turkey will be her vassal, wholly controlled in her interest. She is reported as now demanding grain from Turkey, while multitudes of the most ancient and worthy inhabitants of the country, ruthlessly torn from their homes, are starving in the desert and the Moslem peasantry of Asia Minor are in dire straits.

In the late years of Sultan Abdul Hamid's reign all Turks not the Sultan's creatures were exiled or muzzled; just so it is now with Enver and Talaat and the Germans in power at Constantinople. When this nightmare passes, as pass it will, the educational and reconstructive work of Americans in Turkey, now only temporarily limited, will prove itself a beneficent force of greater value, will be more warmly welcomed by the people of all races, Christian and Moslem alike, than ever heretofore. Most of the missionaries are still at their posts. The schools and colleges, with few exceptions, are open and in many cases in full swing. The hospitals are overcrowded. Is the expectation of enlargement in our work in the near future an evidence of unreasoning optimism? It is optimism but not unreasoning.

There is now no opposition to American influence in Turkey so persistent as that which in the last half of Abdul Hamid's reign was patiently and successfully met and overcome, with the result of a phenomenal increase of our educational and medical work.

Some speak of the missionary work at Van as wiped out. Very serious material loss there has been. The Van missionaries, Dr. Ussher, Mr. Yarrow, and their associates, are in this country. What are they doing? Have they retired acknowledging defeat? No, a thousand times *no*. They are recovering from the terrible strain they have heroically borne, a strain in the case of two noble souls of their number which proved beyond mortal endurance. The survivors are preparing, with renewed strength, to return, with reinforcements, and with the necessary material resources to work for Armenians and Turks as soon as the war ends and peace is established. They will do this with vastly increased promise of the highest permanent usefulness in the years to come. Serious difficulties will appear—will appear, to be overcome.

So it will be in all those centers of educational and philanthropic work undertaken by Americans in Turkey. *The people are still there.* Their cry for help to live, and to enable their children—of every race—to live worthily, to attain more abundant life, will be more urgent, more compelling, just as soon as the black war clouds have been dispersed and the desperate need of all those people has made its irresistible appeal to philanthropic Americans. The invitation will be to no holiday excursion. It will be a call to strenuous, life-long service, a service fit for those strong young men and young women who have love to God and love to men as their inspiring motive and who desire to make their lives tell most for their Master and for human welfare.

## THE KURDS: THEIR CHARACTER AND CUSTOMS

BY YOEUL B. MIRZA

**I**N the closing years of the nineteenth century, the Kurds attracted the attention of the civilized world by falling upon the Armenians and massacring them. Taking advantage of the cataclysm in the Western world, the Kurds and the Turks appear now to be determined upon settling once for all the question of exterminating the Armenian race. The wholesale murder of the Armenians is not all due to religious hatred, as it was at first supposed. A chief reason for this

slaughter is economic jealousy. The Armenians are thrifty, industrious, and, for the most part, a well-educated people. Practically all the rug industry in the Orient is controlled by them. They live and dress better than their neighbors. Such things have always hurt the false Kurdish pride. The recent atrocities inflicted upon the Christian races by the Kurds in this war have been observed and published broadcast. The aim of this article is not to review

the well-known subject of Armenian massacres, but rather to give the reader information gathered from first-hand observations of the Kurds, their land, and their predominating characteristics.

The origin of the Kurds has not been satisfactorily settled, but it is believed that in their veins flows the blood of Chaldeans, Babylonians, and Assyrians. In early times the Kurds preferred mountains for their place of habitation, and took great pride then, as they do now, in being called "Gurdu," a title which signifies "warrior." To-day the "Gutu" are better known in the Occident as Kurds, and number about two million, five hundred thousand,<sup>1</sup> and have their abodes mostly in Kurdistan. Their land, which is extremely mountainous, rises to the east of the upper Tigris in the direction of Urumiah. The area of this space is sixty thousand square miles. There is not a mile of railway in the whole country, and neither is there a road fit for traveling except by caravan.

No people are more mistrusted by the Persians and the Turks than the Kurds. They do not consider a man's religion and standing; they would rob a Turk or a Persian as well as an Armenian or a Greek. The Ottoman Porte and the Persian Shah have not the power to interfere; for that very reason, I believe, the Russian rule in northern Persia was a great blessing to the peace-loving peasants, as Russia was the only government which was able to establish order and to create fear among the Kurds. Of two million, five hundred thousand Kurds, there is no one who calls himself lawgiver and ruler, no one who assumes the authority to punish his fellow Kurd. Law with a Kurd is a personal matter. Each individual considers himself his own king and prince. A monarchy of self-control is unknown among them. The Kurdish mind is his constitution, his gun and sword the means by which he enforces his law and justice. Such a state of affairs is not, of course, favorable to the establishment of a stable government, nor is such an atmosphere conducive to the development of the better qualities of human nature.

Occasionally some queer stories have been told by visitors to Kurdistan; one of these remains in my memory as exemplifying the schooling of a young Kurd. My grandfather, who had been doing missionary work

among the Kurds, related the following conversation with a chieftain:

"You have several sons, I understand?"

"Yes," answered the chief.

"Are they all married?"

"All but poor Ali, and no girl will marry him, because he is not a successful thief and robber."

"Well, what are you going to do about it?"

"Oh, I have advised him," responded the chief, "to carry with him a gun and a sword, and I have explicitly impressed upon his mind, that no matter how bloody and evil the deed he might commit, it will only add respect and honor to his name and family."

Such is the advice of the Kurdish father to his son. The word *kill* is the most used term in the whole Kurdish vocabulary. If two Kurds were in conversation, it would not be very long even for one who knows nothing about the language to detect the word "*ulderam*,"<sup>2</sup> "I will kill him." It would indeed be very unusual to see a young Kurd without a club in his hand, a dagger in his belt, or a gun on his shoulder.

Allegiance of any description is, according to philosophers like Rousseau, a folly, if not a crime, and quite beneath the dignity of a human being. Such is the philosophy of the Kurds. They love personal liberty and under no condition will they willingly subject themselves to any ruler.

The Kurds take no interest in modern reforms. They dislike the light of civilization. We hear of every known nationality and people in America except the Kurds. Civilization has never penetrated the Kurdish character; they prefer their barbaric freedom to law and justice. They have no established homes; in summer they live in tents of goats-hair on the mountain tops, and in winter in mud villages. Their usual diet consists of bread and buttermilk, and cheese made of goats' milk. They have experienced little change since "Noah's Ark rested on the Mount of Ararat." James Bryce, in his "*Transcaucasia and Ararat*," p. 256, gives a graphic picture of the Kurds:

Through the Empires of Assyria and Persia and Macedon, through Parthian Arsacide, and Iranian Sassanide, through the reigns of Arabian Khalifs, and Turkish Sultans, and Persian Shahs, these Kurds have roamed as they roam now, over the slopes of the everlasting mountains, watering their flocks at this spring, pitching their

<sup>1</sup> There are no means by which we can obtain with accuracy the exact population of Kurds, for neither in Persia nor in Turkey has a government census been established.

<sup>2</sup> The word "*ulderam*" is Turkish in origin, as the Kurdish language is largely intermingled with the Turkish and Persian languages.

goats-hair tents in the recesses of these lonely rocks, chanting their wildly pathetic airs with neither a past to remember nor a future to plan for.

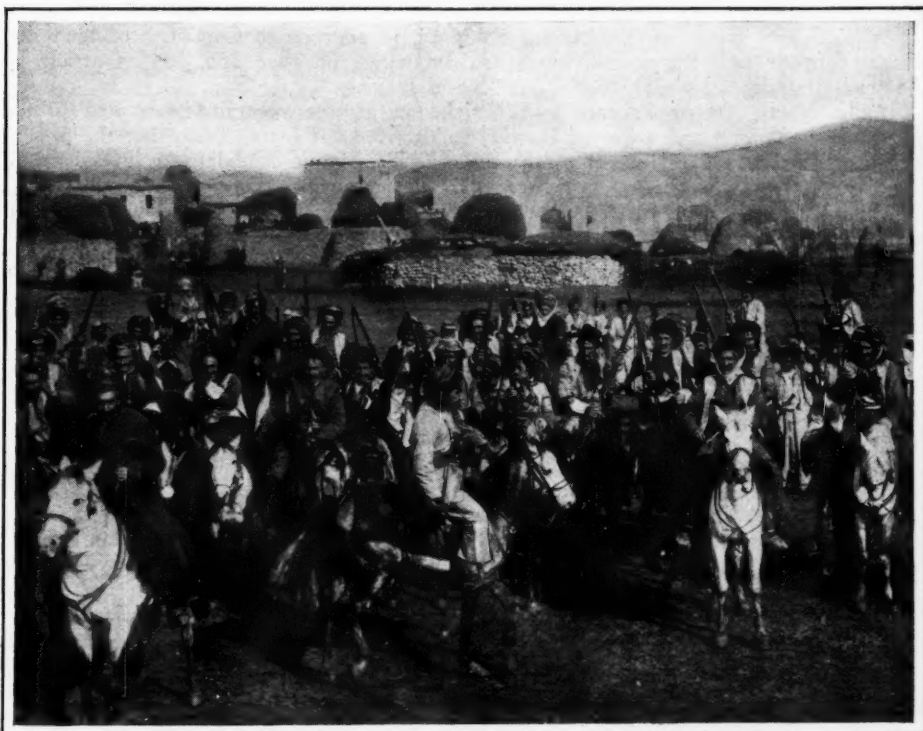
Perhaps the most distinguishing characteristic of the Kurds is great devotion among the members of families. This is exemplified in the following incident. A chief from the mountains of Kurdistan descended into the plains of Urumiah and there engaged in plundering the property of the citizens of the state of Azerbaijan. The militia was ordered to trap the culprits. The chief was subdued. They were brought into the city, and all were sentenced to death except the chief, who was spared for his grey hairs.

Among them was a youth of twenty, strong and healthy; his rugged appearance made an instant appeal to every spectator, and the cry rose, "Save him, save him!" Immediately the old chieftain, whom the Governor had forgiven on account of his age, rushed forward and demanded, before they proceeded with the execution, to speak to the Governor. After the poor old man had experienced much rough treatment at the hands of the crowd, the permission was

granted. In true Oriental fashion, he thus addressed the Governor:

O, eye of my home and of my family. We did come from the mountains to carry some food to our families and to our herds. We admit that we have done harm to your law-abiding citizens. You have sworn that the guilty men should die, and it is just, but I, who am pardoned on account of my age, come here to demand a favor of my lord. The youngest of my family is with me; he came here because I asked him. This is his first offense. He is young, and has hardly tasted the sweets of life; is just betrothed. I am here to die in his stead. Inshallah, inshallah (in the name of God) let a worn-out old man perish, and spare a youth, who may long be useful to his family, to feed the flocks and tend the sheep. Let him live to drink of the waters flowing from the fountains and silvery streams of Kurdistan, and to till the ground of his ancestors.

The Governor was greatly moved by the old man's appeal. He granted the chief's wishes, and the old man went to meet his fate, while the youth cried wildly and became distracted with grief because the Governor reversed his decree and took the more valuable life of the aged chief. This is characteristic of a system which bears to-day more clearly than any other traces of the patriarchal government.



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

KURDISH TROOPS IN THE TURKISH ARMY

# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

WE make no apology for giving in this number, as in February, a fairly large proportion of our space to the current discussion of Preparedness as a practical issue before the country. Our readers will find the digests of the latest published writings of President James and former Secretary Garrison of special interest and value. The articles on "Britain as an Arsenal," and "War Relief and War Service," summarized on pages 356-358 from the *Edinburgh Review* and the *Quarterly Review*, respectively, give us the most enlightened English point of view regarding the remarkable transformations in British economic life brought about by the exigencies of the war. Some of Canada's gains from the war are set forth in the extracts from Mr. Sibley's *Canadian Magazine* article (page 358).

A politico-economic conception quite new to most American readers is outlined in a remarkable article appearing in the French journal, *Le Correspondant*, the main points of which are summarized on pages 359-60. This is the proposed Austrian Zollverein.

In connection with Mr. Kaempffert's article in this number of the REVIEW, on the aeroplane industry, readers will find suggestive material (illustrations as well as text) on the subject of aviators' tactics in the air on page 360. This is followed by an interesting account of certain animals that live in trenches adapted from *La Nature* (Paris).

Other important and timely topics treated in the department this month are: "Civilization and Climate," "New York's Health Insurance Project," "Salvini, the Tragedian" (from an Italian source), "German-Americans and German Literature," and "The Revival of Interest in Folk Song."

The *North American Review* for February, in addition to Captain Stockton's discussion of our military policy, which we summarize on page 355, has an article by Admiral Bradley A. Fiske, U. S. N., on "Naval Defense."

The *North American's* opening editorial, ten pages in length, is devoted to the question of "Wilson and a Second Term," and arrives at the conclusion that the present occupant of the White House must be the next Democratic candidate for President.

The *Atlantic Monthly* for February has the following articles relating to the war: "On Understanding the Mind of Germany," by John Dewey; "A Philosopher's View of the War," by Count Hermann Keyserling; "The Pathos of America," by Henry Osborn Taylor; "The Cost," by Alfred Ollivant; "In French Hospitals," by Anna Murray Vail; and "At the End of the Line in War Time," by Edmund Kemper Broadus.

We are quoting from Mr. Edward Garnett's "A Gossip on Criticism," in the *Atlantic*, on pages 366-367.

Coming to the February issues of the popular illustrated monthlies we find in the *Century* a prophecy by Dr. Hendrik Willem van Loon on "The World After the War." In the same magazine Ireland is epitomized by the Irish journalist F. Sheehy Skeffington as "A Forgotten Small Nationality."

The February *Scribner's* is called a motor number, but not all its articles are devoted to that interest. Besides the second instalment of Edward H. Sothorn's "Remembrances," giving the story of Lord Dundreary and Recollections of famous players, there is a story by Colonel Roosevelt of a moose hunt and the charge of a big bull moose; and an intimate account of the results of the German invasion on a French village is given by Madame Waddington.

The careers of certain Americans who have been made rich and powerful by the war are vividly sketched by Albert W. Atwood in the *American Magazine*. Charles M. Schwab, Pierre S. DuPont, Marcellus H. Dodge, and Samuel F. Pryor are the personalities who stand out most prominently. In the same magazine Mr. Milton Fairchild's advice for teaching morals to boys and girls by the use of photographs is outlined by Ray Stannard Baker.



# MILITARY TRAINING IN OUR LAND-GRANT COLLEGES

**A**N important address on our land-grant colleges as centers of military training was given by President Edmund J. James, of the University of Illinois, before the Committee on Military Affairs, of the House of Representatives, on February 10. The address appears in full in the *University of Illinois Bulletin* for March 6.

After stating that in his opinion the fundamental element in the whole question of Military Preparedness is the creation of a sufficiently numerous body of adequately prepared officers to man properly the armed forces of the nation, and outlining the principles on which any method of training officers which is to be efficient and satisfactory to the country at large must rest, President James proceeded to discuss the practical question, How can these officers be provided? His answer to this question, in brief, was to utilize the means at hand in the series of national-state institutions, now more than fifty in number, known as the land-grant colleges. Among the arguments advanced by President James in support of his policy, are the following:

These institutions are first of all national institutions. They owe their origin to national initiative, were created in response to national legislation, and are supported in large part by national appropriations. They are required by federal law to give instruction in military science and tactics, and nearly thirty thousand young men are now receiving in these institutions such military training as may be obtained by three hours' work per week through two years under the supervision for the most part of an officer of the regular army detailed for this purpose by the War Department of the United States, and carrying out a scheme of instruction approved by said Department.

All that is necessary to make at least the beginning of an adequate scheme for supplying the reserve officers, and for that matter, many of the active officers of our national forces, is to energize and vitalize the military departments of these institutions, already in organic connection with the federal War Department, already attended by fifty thousand young men, all of whom are pledged to perform at least two years' military service. How much better it is to train effectively the young men who are now on hand and who are willing to accept this training, instead of trying to get thirty thousand other volunteers who will come in, in any case, with reluctance.

These institutions are already among the strong centers of intellectual life and light in the States where they are located. They are permanent foundations of no mean extent, and will with the passing years exercise an ever larger and more

important leadership in their respective communities. The value of the property of these institutions already exceeds one hundred and sixty million dollars; their annual income exceeds thirty-five million dollars; and their total attendance exceeds one hundred and fifteen thousand.

The fact that they are State as well as national institutions, drawing the bulk of their income from State sources, and that in them the coöperation of the State and the nation is so finely exemplified should be an additional reason for making them an important link in this great chain of national defense.

These institutions are moreover peculiarly democratic in their nature. The tuition charges are moderate or altogether absent, the mode of life of the student and professor is simple, and the cost of living is comparatively low. Because of their relation to the State and the nation, the feeling of loyalty and patriotism on the part of the students is strong, and the time and effort and expense required for this military service are given cheerfully, and in some cases enthusiastically.

President James proceeds to describe briefly what one of the typical land-grant colleges, the University of Illinois, is already doing in this field, taking Illinois, as he says, because he knows most about it and is most fully aware of its defects. It is assumed that other institutions are doing as much, other things being equal, as Illinois, and in much the same way.

The University of Illinois is one designated as Class C under Paragraph 4, General Order No. 70, War Department 1913, that is, Colleges and Universities not essentially military where the curriculum is sufficiently advanced to carry with it a degree and where the average age of the students on graduation is not less than 21 years. This Military Department was established under the Morrill Land-Grant Act of 1862. The total Federal appropriation for the last fiscal year under the various Acts, Morrill, Adams, Nelson, Hatch, etc., was \$122,422.14. The expenditures on account of Military have been as follows: During the two years ending March 31, 1915, \$227,918.87 was expended upon the new Armory (floor space 200x400), which has been in use since January 1, 1915. It will require \$250,000 more to complete this building. In addition to the above, the appropriation for incidental expenses, Military Scholarships, etc., pertaining to the Military Department was \$8500 for each of the past two years.

The organization of the Corps of Cadets is as follows: Two complete regiments of infantry (24 companies), a Foot Battery of Field Artillery, Signal Company, Engineer Company and Hospital Company. Also, a band for each Regiment, a Reserve Band, and a Trumpet and Drum Corps. The total number of cadets in the Mil-

tary Department, November 1, 1915, was 2069, including the band of about 165 men. The band is composed of members from all classes of the University. Those of the first two years substitute this for their Military drill. During the last two years they have the same status as the Cadet Officers, and receive \$24 per year.

During the Freshman and Sophomore years, Military Training is compulsory. Sergeants are selected from the Sophomore class, Lieutenants from the Junior class, Captains and Field Officers from the Senior class. These selections are made by the Commandant of Cadets and approved by the Council of Administration, provided the appointees are in good standing in their undergraduate course, and morally fitted as well. The commissioned officers receive a special Military Scholarship (value, \$24 per year), which is paid to them upon the satisfactory completion of each year's work. They are, also, presented by the University with a sabre and belt upon graduation, as well as a commission by the Governor of Illinois as Brevet Captain in the I. N. G.

All students must gain five credits [out of a total of 130] in Military Training in order to be entitled to graduate. Any student excused from Military for any purpose whatsoever must make up these five credits in some other department.

Drill is held twice a week, and the requirements of Paragraph 27, G. O. No. 70, are fully complied with, that is, each cadet receives eighty-four one-hour periods of instruction in Military, at least two-thirds of the total time being devoted to practical instruction. Paragraph 28 same order is fully complied with, except in Range practise and regular encampments for the entire Corps. There is no rifle range within forty miles of the institution, and no provision has been made as yet by the authorities for summer camps. The entire Corps of Cadets is given gallery practise in the Armory throughout the year. Only a small percentage of the cadets get outdoor range practise, because the expense of going to and from the Range is too great, and has to be borne by the cadet himself. Forty-six students attended the various summer encampments this year,—forty-three at Ludington, two at San Francisco, and one at Plattsburg. The majority of these men are now officers in the Corps of Cadets and greatly increase the efficiency thereof.

The instruction, both practical and theoretical, comprises all of the Drill Regulations, portions of the Field Service Regulations, Ceremonies, Calisthenics, Bayonet Exercise, Guard Duty, Target Practise, Signalling, and minor Tactics.

The organization of the Engineer Company and Hospital Company effected this year will improve the instruction along these lines.

It is suggested by President James that this plan of coöperation between State and nation offers the method under which each part of our body politic may bear its share of the total expense in an equitable manner. If the State is willing to furnish such a large part of the equipment, and in addition the boy who is to be trained, it is not too much to ask that the nation should on its part provide the rest of the essentials in order to make this work fully effective.

The essentials, according to President James, are these:

First, more officers detailed by the War Department for the work of supervision and instruction. We have at present at the University of Illinois only one such officer for a brigade of over two thousand men. The military authorities in the War College are willing to recommend the increase of this force, and some of the most experienced officers think that it should be increased to one officer for every five hundred cadets.

In my own opinion, this would be a minimum force. It should rather be one for every four hundred cadets. The commanding officer of such a brigade as ours should be of the rank of Colonel in the regular army. And yet, owing to the lack of trained officers, the War Department solemnly proposed two years ago sending a second lieutenant.

Furthermore, the time spent on such a detail as that at Illinois should count for the officer as time spent with the troops in considering his service and promotion. The discrimination against such work as this, which is involved in the present rules, acts to discourage officers from accepting such details. The Commandant of a University brigade like ours is as busy and hard working as any officer with the regular troops in time of peace.

Every officer detailed for such work should be in first-class condition as to his health. He should not, generally speaking, be a retired officer, but a man in the full vigor of active work. The Military Commandant at such an institution as Illinois has a position of unique influence with the young men of the University. No other person comes in such intimate contact with such a large number of the Freshmen and Sophomores in college as he. Personal influence still counts to-day as always in the past for more than any other kind of influence. The man detailed for this work should be the very highest type of the gentleman and the scholar, fully sensible of the great responsibility he assumes in taking such a position.

Secondly, the Federal Government should furnish the same kind and amount of supplies and equipment for the use of these cadet regiments as for the National Guard itself. In fact, the War Department should be authorized to make a distinct class of these regiments and furnish them all the supplies and equipment of every sort which they can show they will make good use of, dealing directly with the authorities of these land-grant colleges themselves in promoting the efficiency of this branch of the national defense.

In concluding his address before the Committee on Military Affairs, President James presented a still more comprehensive plan in connection with these land-grant institutions, involving the establishing of a regular four-year course in Military Science and Tactics, in each of the universities, at any rate in each of the larger institutions, leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Military Science and Art, and qualifying the student to enter the regular army as Second Lieutenant on a par with the West Pointer.

## SECRETARY GARRISON'S MILITARY POLICY

THE resignation, on February 10, of Secretary of War Lindley M. Garrison because of differences with President Wilson as to measures before Congress for increasing the nation's military establishment gave a new impetus to the discussion in the press regarding the Continental Army and other features of the Administration's preparedness program, for which Mr. Garrison had been sponsor.

His own explanation of his policy appears in the February number of the *National Monthly* (Buffalo, N. Y.), of which Mr. Norman E. Mack is editor. This statement was prepared before Mr. Garrison quit office, and may be accepted as the most authoritative announcement of his views and plans that has been published since the opening of Congress. The statement is in the form of question and answer, and summarizes as briefly as possible the reasons that led Mr. Garrison to make the definite recommendations that at first met with the approval of the President.

At the outset, Mr. Garrison assumes that the problem before the country is this: "What should be done in the way of permanent, sensible, adequate development of the nation's military resources?" In addressing himself to this question, Mr. Garrison soon reached the conclusion that the situation is not to be met with a regular standing army of the required size; that is to say, there is a practical agreement that at least 500,000 men should be subject to call and command of the President for a first line in the event of a war of any considerable size. To this force must be added the troops needed for over-sea garrisons. The initial cost of recruiting, equipping, housing, clothing, feeding, officering, and training between 500,000 and 600,000 men would be stupendous. By maintaining such an establishment the nation would be relying solely on a paid professional army and not on citizens trained and obligated for military service. A reliance of this kind is un-American.

It would be impossible to raise an army of such size except by conscription or compulsion. The present maximum of recruiting for the regular army is about 50,000 a year. If the country demands conscription laws, Congress, of course, has the power to enact them, but in Mr. Garrison's opinion there has not yet been any such united de-

mand as would justify Congress in taking such action. He, therefore, rejected as impracticable the proposition for a standing army of adequate size for national defense. He did, however, propose a regular army of 142,000 men. This, he says, would be large enough to garrison the over-seas possessions, give us 510 officers, and more than 19,000 men for the harbor defenses of continental United States, and about 50,000 men of the mobile army, troops, with their officers and the extra officers and non-commissioned officers needed for training the other military forces. In time of peace, this force is sufficient for the needs of the country. It is ample for internal disturbances, border duty, or as an expeditionary force. It is also sufficient for the other great and imperative duty of training the citizen forces.

Mr. Garrison was then asked how he proposed to make up the first line, and his answer was: "With the regular army, the Continental Army, and whatever organizations volunteer for service."

The Continental Army, so-called, is described by Mr. Garrison as the supplement or reserve of the regular army. It would consist of 400,000 men organized and equipped, officered and subject to instant call. It would be raised by annual increments of 133,000,—each man to serve with the colors three years,—so that after the first three years it would always have 400,000 men united with the colors. The period of training suggested is sixty days in each year, but Mr. Garrison never insisted on this point.

It will be recruited territorially and will be trained by the officers and men of the regular army. Its officers will be procured from a variety of sources—those who have served with the regular army or the National Guard, those who have taken courses at military schools or colleges and attained sufficient primary instruction to be developed by intensive work, those who go in as privates and work through prescribed courses at instruction establishments of the regular army, those who are already in an officers' reserve corps, and those who may qualify hereafter to be placed therein. We purpose standardizing the course of instruction, or training in the military courses of the hundreds of institutions which now have or will have such, and by such coöperation and supervision obtain each year thousands of available young men for this service. All that is needed is efficient coöperation and the adoption of the proper system to obtain the results. West Point itself will be increased to its maximum capacity with its present plant and will then have 772 cadets.

Before Mr. Garrison had stated his scheme for the Continental Army, his interrogator had brought up the point that was later to develop into the serious difference between Congress and the administration on the subject of the utilization of the National Guard. The question to which Mr. Garrison made reply in the *National Monthly* was this: "What about the idea that the National Guard could be made the other force outside of the regular army, and form with it a first line?" In answer Mr. Garrison said:

To that matter I gave the most profound consideration of which I am capable and obtained the views of everyone whose experience might help to a wise decision.

I realized the sentiment in favor of doing that if it was possible. I feel that the men and officers of the guard had been working hard and with great embarrassments and obstacles, and nothing would have pleased me so much as to have been able to determine conscientiously that I could recommend that solution of the problem. It is not, however, possible to do so if you study the conditions and the facts.

In the first place, the very conception of the Constitution was of two separate forces—one for national purposes solely, the other primarily for State purposes and only to a very limited extent for national purposes. Since the State troops could be used for some Federal purposes, the Constitution provides that the National Government may prescribe the organization of the State militia; that is, may determine what kind of troops they shall be, may furnish them with arms, and may prescribe the discipline by which they must be trained. The Constitution vests the government of the State militia in the States, and provides that the States shall appoint the officers to train the troops.

The very first necessity of any successful military system is therefore lacking; unity of author-

ity, responsibility, and control. Instead of one central jurisdiction conceiving and legislating and regulating and commanding, as is essential, we have forty-eight separate States exercising full jurisdiction of government and control. The attempts to get around the Constitution by the Federal Government annexing conditions to the acceptance of money will not stand any real test or strain. The Federal Government can not buy jurisdiction and the State can not sell it. Heretofore on many occasions when the governors of States have disagreed with the purpose for which the Federal Government has desired to use the State troops they have objected to and at times prevented such use. They have even disbanded their troops to thwart the purpose of the National Government. This power to govern, to appoint the officers, and to train the troops is vested in the States and can not be taken from them save by changing the Constitution. To build on the present foundation would therefore be impossible; to await a change by a constitutional amendment would be folly.

It is inconceivable that you could get the States to increase their present forces of say 129,000 to 400,000 in any event, even if you determined to accept that solution of the problem. Many of the best officers of the National Guard believe and state this. Many of the men and officers are in the guard because they wish to equip themselves for national service if needed.

In concluding his statement in the *National Monthly*, Mr. Garrison remarks that his recommendations and those of the War College Division of the General Staff are identical in principle, and differ only in detail. The General Staff recommended a larger increase in the regular army, fuller equipment in the way of horses and transportation, etc., of the Continental Army, and more men in the Continental Army than he felt it wise to recommend.

## VIEWS ON PREPAREDNESS AND PACIFISM

IN his discussion of the question of preparedness in the *Yale Review*, Mr. Anson Phelps Stokes represents neither extreme in the controversy, but sets forth what may be regarded as the conclusions of a modern Pacifist who believes in national defense, but fears that the advocacy of a big navy and other military preparations may lead the country into war.

Mr. Stokes brushes aside the contentions of those advocates of preparedness who have warned us against the possibility of a German attack. He maintains that the ships that we already have, together with "those that would naturally be constructed, in fol-

lowing out a well-conceived building policy, without any sudden and enormous enlargement of expenditures, and with full appreciation by naval officers of the lessons of the war," should be adequate to meet any German fleet that is likely to attack us in the near future.

As to our land forces, Mr. Stokes is convinced that by adopting some features of the Swiss system, greater efficiency, a largely increased force, and a higher morale could be secured without spending another dollar. He proposes a shortening of the years spent by regulars "with the colors" and a lengthening of the period with the reserves, instead of



the present term of seven years' enlistments, of which the last three are "on furlough." He commends training camps like those at Plattsburg and proposes the concentration of our army in eight posts instead of forty-nine, as well as an increase of federal supervision over the State militia.

Mr. Stokes thus summarizes the incidental benefits that have already been accomplished by the preparedness movement:

It has called attention to our unsatisfactory enlistment laws and to our uneconomical plan of national defense, and rightly demands reforms of Congress. It has advocated the strengthening of the militia and the development of officers' training camps. It encourages the American Legion in an important task which the Government should assume, of keeping in touch with former soldiers and sailors. It opposes congressional interference for local political purposes with the administration of the army and navy. It has shown the absurdity of the old theory that an effective army can be raised in a day, and emphasizes the importance of well-trained reserves. It holds up the ideal that every citizen should be ready and willing to render service to the State for its defense, and shows the educational value of military training as a discipline among our heterogeneous population. It calls for a study of the systems of Switzerland and of Australia, which have proved themselves well adapted to other democratic countries and which are certainly worthy of study, even if it should be decided not to adopt them or anything like them in this country. For these services the advocates of preparedness deserve thanks.

On the other hand, he finds that the preparedness campaign has to answer for certain serious evils:

Preparedness exaggerates the danger of invasion, tending to put our people in a condition of stage fright; it fails to appreciate the changes that have come about in restricting the legitimate causes of war, and that will come about abroad after the present war in the more democratic control of foreign affairs; it is blind to the perils to our nation involved in entering the competitive race for armaments with European countries; it over-emphasizes some of the martial virtues and does not fully realize the opportunities for the development of the best of them off the field of battle; it takes inadequate cognizance of the force of public opinion, economic pressure, and non-intercourse as at least partial substitutes for war; it fails to appreciate the difficulties in raising taxes for the enormous new expenditures proposed, without creating widespread dissatisfaction; and it overlooks the insidious dangers in a democracy, where the directing heads in the executive and legislative departments are constantly changing, of having in Washington,—the home *par excellence* for retired and furloughed officers,—an increasingly powerful military group, supremely interested in enlarging and further enlarging our army and navy.

In closing his article, Mr. Stokes quotes

from a lecture delivered by Lord Rosebery in November last, in which he laments the announcement "that the United States,—the one great country left in the world free from the hideous, bloody burden of war,—is about to embark upon the building of a huge armada, destined to be equal or second to our own."

### Our Military Policy

In the *North American Review* for February, Mr. Richard Stockton, Jr., criticizes the administration's plans for national defense. The true solution of the problem, according to Mr. Stockton, is a large, regular force with compulsory service. He seems certain, however, that no policy of that kind will prevail in Congress. In attempting to maintain a State-controlled militia, Mr. Stockton asserts that money is being wasted, and that still more will be wasted if it is attempted to raise a "Continental" army without incorporating the valuable features of the militia system. He holds that the federal government, which must declare and conduct war, should have absolute control of the preparation of all fighting units which it will be compelled to use. Vesting the control of the military force in forty-eight practically independent States means an almost total military waste.

In Mr. Stockton's opinion we should maintain but two forces in this nation, each with its reserves. One should be a regular army of sufficient force to perform the duties of peace without hardship, and the other a Continental army of federal citizen soldiers replacing the militia entirely for the purpose of national defense, but taking over its personnel, equipment, and features of its organization, which time has shown to be valuable.

### Ought Christians to Be Pacifists?

In the *Bibliotheca Sacra* (Oberlin, Ohio), Dr. H. W. Magoun vigorously repels the assumption that the man who fights cannot, under any circumstances, be regarded as a consistent follower of the Galilean. He specifically condemns the hypocrisy of those peace advocates whose motives are grounded in the desire to avoid the risk of financial loss. He is unwilling that such men should be designated as humble followers of Christ.

They are nothing of the sort. They are parasites on His bounty and little else. He stands for righteousness, and He stands for it at any cost.

No. I am not a bloodthirsty swashbuckler. I am the mildest kind of a mild-mannered man; but I see things as they are. This present war was bound to come. It could not be avoided.

And it must be fought out to a finish. If it is not, then we shall make no progress in the paths of peace. And we must be ready to do our part,—if necessary. God forbid that it should be necessary; but God forbid still more that we should dodge or shirk our duty! Let us by all means be followers of the Galilean. No nobler calling can await us, and we shall gain, not lose, in manliness.

It is no time for such persons to lose heart. Nor is it time for them to abandon high ideals: Let them work for peace, if they will; but let

them remember that righteousness must come first. Peace without that, even if it is established among the nations now at war, will be a great disaster. It will be a dream and a delusion. Nothing short of international righteousness will answer, and we must be prepared to back up that position to the limit. If it means another baptism of blood for us, that can make no difference. If we are followers of the Galilean, we must be ready to pay even that price for righteousness in the world at large. On no other basis are we safe. And on no other is He honored.

## “AN ASTONISHING SPECTACLE” BRITAIN AS AN ARSENAL

ENGLAND'S industrial mobilization is the subject of an article contributed to the *Edinburgh Review* by Dr. A. Shadwell. This writer keenly feels the pity of such a transformation as has taken place in Great Britain's economic life. Speaking of reactions of war on industry, he says:

When the war comes to be reviewed in proper perspective, its social and economic aspects will be found at least as remarkable as the military events, and perhaps more instructive. And among them the influence of war on industry and the converse influence of industry on war will take a prominent place. We are, indeed, witnessing a phenomenon so extraordinary and unexpected that we can only see its surface as we pass, and are hardly able to comprehend even that. Never before has the supreme concerted effort demanded by war been so fully brought out and the inscrutable mystery of human conduct been so clearly posed as in the prodigious conflict of industrial nations. War has directly absorbed a far larger proportion of the common energy than ever before, and there seems to be no limit to its power of absorption.

All the belligerent nations are similarly affected in the measure of their industrial development, and the absorption of war is not even confined to them. In neutral countries, too, civil manufacturers have been mobilized and attached to the chariot of war upon an enormous scale.

This is an astonishing spectacle, and the more closely it is examined the more astonishing it appears.

All the accumulated mass of knowledge, the slow-won mastery of natural forces and materials, the skill, the craftsmanship, the cunning manipulation and blending, the infinite variety of tools, the huge apparatus of world-wide transport by land and sea—all the means which man has in the lapse of ages gradually made his own and applied to maintain life, increase comfort, and serve his daily needs in countless ways—all these are suddenly turned to purely destructive purposes with an ardor and energy unknown to civil life.

Dr. Shadwell declares that if the German visit that was made to Sheffield shortly before the war were to be repeated now the

eyes of Germany would be opened, for next to the achievement of the navy in wiping out the German submarines Dr. Shadwell counts as England's greatest feat the creation of the system of war industry that exists to-day. To see this industry in its full extent, however, would require far more than a mere visit to Sheffield. Indeed, the visitors would have to “sweep the country from Cornwall to Aberdeen, and from Loch Lomond to the Downs.”

When England went to war only a limited number of armament firms were in a position to accept orders, and most of them were doing still more urgent work for the admiralty, so that they could take War Office orders on a large scale only by giving up commercial work, extending their factories, and sub-contracting. The most important group is at Sheffield where five large firms have their headquarters with other establishments and offshoots elsewhere.

Three of them have shipyards also—Vickers at Barrow, Cammell and Laird at Birkenhead, and John Brown at Clydebank—besides other works. An important offshoot is the Coventry Ordnance Works, jointly owned by John Brown (with whom Firths is associated) and Cammell and Laird. The fifth Sheffield firm is Hadfield's, who specialize in projectiles. These five Sheffield firms, being equipped for heavy work of all kinds, have played a most important part in arming our forces. There are two other great firms of a similar character elsewhere—namely, Armstrong's at Newcastle and Openshaw (Manchester), and Beardmore's at Glasgow. These seven firms have been and are the backbone of our industrial army in war. They are able to undertake nearly every class of work, large and small, from fuses to battleships; and their aggregate resources far exceed those of Krupp's.

Dr. Shadwell rightly says that the development of these resources into the all-embracing organization of to-day is an achievement of which England was thought inca-



HOSIERY FACTORY INSTALLED IN A PICCADILLY MANSION

(In this mansion, which is used as the headquarters of the Queen's Work for Women Fund, a power winder has been installed to expedite the winding of wool for two million pairs of socks for soldiers)

pable. But the work of the Ministry of Munitions during the last six months is essentially a feat of organization by business men. Such a system of organization as has been perfected for this purpose was never before attempted in Great Britain, and in Dr. Shadwell's opinion has certainly not been surpassed, if it has been equalled, in other countries.

It is essentially a scheme for gathering up many units, both small and large, but particularly the small, and enabling them to contribute in one way or another. And its interest lies in the fact that it has raked the country with a tooth-comb for all the spare units available. It is not confined to industrial districts; it penetrates into remote regions associated only with agriculture or pleasure resorts. One of the twelve areas is the West of England, with Bristol for headquarters and feelers that run down to Somerset, Devon, and Cornwall. Another is East Anglia, where contributions are levied among the Broads and bathing places. Wherever two or three lathes are gathered together, there some help is being given.

To the complaint still frequently made that the business capacity of the nation is not fully utilized by the government, Dr. Shadwell opposes the fact that the staff of the

Munitions Office is filled with practical men of the highest standing and capacity. These men have been brought together in Whitehall from some of the largest, most enterprising, and most successful business concerns in Great Britain, and, according to Dr. Shadwell, they have no superiors in their own lines of industry. As an instance, Dr. Shadwell refers to the Bombay and Burmah Trading Company, said to be the largest trading concern in existence, one of its incidental assets being a herd of trained elephants valued at \$20,000,000. Yet the manager of this great business is content to occupy an assistant's seat in a sub-office of the Supply Department at Whitehall.

#### Woman's Interests and Conditions as Affected by the War

An article on "War Relief and War Service," by Mrs. M. G. Fawcett, in the *Quarterly Review* (London), shows how Great Britain's civilian population has contributed in various ways to the nation's efficiency. In particular, the article points out that woman's professional and industrial status has been altered more or less permanently by

the demands of the hour, and that her capacity in many lines of effort is now recognized as never before.

In the new work in which women have been engaged they have shown a high degree of industrial efficiency, not merely in the mechanical feeding of automatic machines, but in work which requires technical skill of a high order. Mrs. Fawcett quotes from the well-known technical journal, *The Engineer*, a paragraph offering proof that women can and do require a high standard of skill and efficiency:

We need only mention one case, but it will appeal to every mechanical engineer.

In a certain screwing operation it was customary, before the employment of women to rough the thread out with the tool and then to finish it off with taps. Some trouble having arisen owing to the wearing of the taps, the women of their own initiative did away with the second operation and are now accurately chasing the threads to gauge with the tool alone. This is work of which any mechanic



MRS. MAURICE HEWLETT

(The wife of the distinguished novelist has become one of the busiest aeroplane-builders in England. She first won her pilot's certificate, driving machines in France and England, and then turned her attention to their manufacture)

might feel proud. . . . In fact it may be stated with absolute truth that women have shown themselves perfectly capable of performing operations which hitherto have been exclusively carried out by men.

It is not likely that after this experience of women's industrial efficiency they will be excluded from the skilled trades after the war. The practical problem will be to raise their industrial status without lowering the industrial status of men. Mrs. Fawcett laments the fact that at present women have not only been excluded from what are known as men's trades, but also in a large degree from what are universally recognized as women's trades, such as catering, housecleaning, and cooking. The disgraceful waste which has characterized the administration of the training camps for soldiers is largely attributed by Mrs. Fawcett to the fact that "women have not been put to do their own job."

## CANADA'S GAINS FROM THE WAR

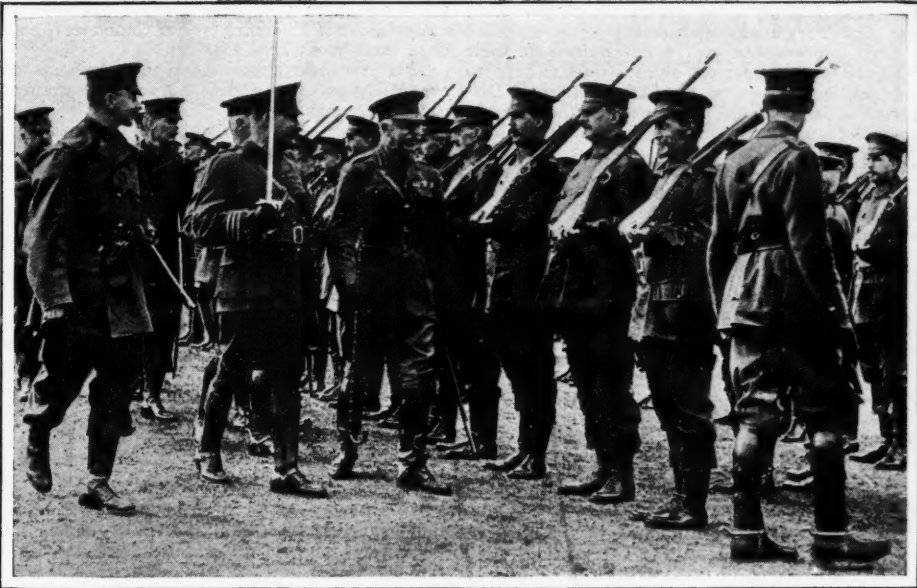
IN spite of the heavy losses already sustained by Canada, because of her part in the great war, Canadian writers and editors are still optimistic and like to dwell on the gains that they think the war will bring to them, while they look upon the losses as temporary.

In the *Canadian Magazine*, Mr. C. Lintern Sibley summarizes "Canada's Mighty Gains from the War." One point brought out in his article is, that Canada's manufacturing development has proceeded far more rapidly than is commonly understood. Canada has not been an exporter of manufactured goods, for the simple reason that her workshops have been occupied in meeting the demands of her farming activities. The equipment of her transcontinental trunk railroads has also largely absorbed her attention, but since the war began Canada's energy has been largely directed to the sup-

plying of munitions for the European campaign, and it is believed in Canada that the machinery erected for this purpose will in later years help to meet the world's demands after Germany, "the great price-cutter of the nations," is put out of the running. This is Mr. Sibley's view of Canada's export opportunity:

Do we realize the possibilities of the new conditions? Are our Government and our industrial and commercial leaders alive to the opportunities? Because if we are to reap the full benefits of the new era which the war is opening for us, we must begin now to prepare for the great world-trade that will be open to us. Already overseas friends are knocking at our doors. India has sent inquiries for manufactures of metal. Australasia is looking for an extension of reciprocal trading. Russia is ready to extend in her enormous empire the trade we have begun with her. The end of the war will see for Canada big opportunities in friendly markets that would not have come but for the war.





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## FINANCIAL MAGNATES AS PRIVATES IN THE CANADIAN ARMY

This writer suggests that, apart from trade, Canada will benefit from the lessons of the war. The stern education of the times has shown the Dominion that unity is essential for her future:

Coming to larger issues, perhaps the outstanding consideration is the remarkable revelation which the war has caused of the strategic importance of Canada in the British Empire. Canada has often been spoken of as the granary of the British Empire, but never before has it been

brought home so vividly to the people of Great Britain as it has been by the supply of foodstuffs which has poured out in such an unending flood from Canada to the Old Country since the war began. Then there is the dominant position which Canada gives as a base for sea power, and last, but not least, the importance of the Canadian nation as the connecting link between Great Britain and the great English-speaking nation to the south of us. These considerations will compel a still more intimate interest in furthering Canadian development on the part of the capitalists in the heart of the Empire.

## “THE TRUE AUSTRIAN DANGER”

A VERY remarkable political forecast, left unsigned with a significant prudence, appears in *Le Correspondant* (Paris) for January 10, under the title quoted above. The anonymous author of this striking article declares boldly that Germany realizes that her scheme of military conquest cannot be achieved, and that she is already planning a more subtle form of European domination by means of a *Zollverein* or Customs League cementing the Central European States. The consent of Austria is to be gained by the proffer of a third crown to her Emperor-King, that of the new kingdom of Poland, which Germany contemplates forming from the Polish territory conquered from Russia. The author

believes further that Hungary will sanction this for private reasons of her own.

The writer analyzes this alleged political scheme in detail and expresses his conviction that it constitutes a menace to the rest of Europe greater than that actually faced in the momentous struggle now taking place.

A double current is making itself felt in Germany at the present moment. On the one hand there is the desire to see peace concluded, and on the other hand there is the will to create a new Germany, stronger than that of 1914, under the vague enough title of “Middle Europe.”

These two tendencies, perfectly convergent, constitute for the Allies a danger which cannot be sufficiently denounced. It is certain that the Germans . . . well understand that they will never succeed in crushing the Allies; they need

therefore to find some dream of compensation for their dream of hegemony.

Such compensation would be attained, in their eyes, by the adjunction of Austria-Hungary to the political system of the Hohenzollerns. Different articles in the press, notably these of the too celebrated Dr. Friedjung, as well as a book by Dr. Friedrich Navemann,—a book which has had an enormous success,—make sufficiently clear to those who know the Germany and the Austria-Hungary of to-day the precise nature of the new concept of world domination which governs the German mind. . . .

The fact is of a capital gravity. If Germany obtains "her peace," even if she benevolently renders liberty to Belgium, Alsace-Lorraine to France, and colonies or zones of influence to England and Russia, but forms the *Zollverein*, the customs union with Austria-Hungary, we shall shortly be confronted with a power far more formidable than that which in 1914 dared to attack the whole of Europe, a state whose frontiers would run from the North Sea to the Adriatic, from the sands of Poland to the Rhine, from the Rumanian forests to Holland.

The writer affirms that such a state is already in process of formation under the significant title of Middle or Central Europe, and that the romantic dream of a Germanic Holy Empire has given place in Germany to a spirit which is "positive, commercial, almost American." He points out that Germany has already begun to dominate her ally.

Her superiority in interior organization is manifest. Humiliated Austria is forced to have recourse to her in everything. Germany commences henceforth to dominate her ally. She imposes upon her her generals, her formations; she extorts provisions to such an extent that last winter Vienna lacked the products derived from Austro-Hungarian land, while Berlin was able to lower their price. But Germany has delivered Vienna from the haunting fear of a Russian invasion. . . . In close collaboration with German troops, under the command of German generals, the army has been successful in the offensive against the Russians.

The writer declares that the reward exacted by Germany for these services is the proposed *Zollverein*.

Timidly at first the press speaks of an accord in the customs tariff of the two countries; but very soon it becomes a question of a customs union. The extraordinary thing is that such a proposition has had an excellent reception in Austria. She has forgotten everything. She no longer remembers the *Zollverein* of other times, the prelude to the absorption by Prussia of the small German states. . . . Yet she cannot be ignorant that, merely as an economic matter, such a measure would place her industry and her commerce at the mercy of the industry and commerce of Germany, better organized, better furnished, with outlets far vaster. The oft-repeated dogmas of *Weltpolitik* (world politics), of great

states united in federation for the great world struggle, for *Welthandel* (world commerce), have done their work here too.

This new theory, the issue of the maximum "do everything on the big scale," is fatally certain to give to Germany, united to Austria, an economic predominance,—the preface to a military domination which would surpass in amplitude all anterior German plans.

In such a state of affairs, says the author, it would be not merely the small states which would suffer in the economic struggle of nations, but even the great powers would not be able to hold their own without forming formidable coalitions, new United States. To lull the fears of Austria her autonomy and government would at first be scrupulously respected, but eventually her history would be that of Bavaria.

The repercussion of such a policy on France and on Europe would be incalculable. From the time of Louis XIV until the epoch of Prussian hegemony Germany was divided and weak. . . . It was only too often repeated that the difference of race and religion would prevent these states from allowing themselves to be fully assimilated by Prussia. The present war proves the contrary. The union of Austria and Germany, economic at first, would have the same results. Neither race nor religion would prevent fusion. For the moment only the customs union is being agitated, but when the monarchy had been sufficiently mined by German propaganda and closely bound by German industry and commerce, when the Austrians had lost faith in their own strength and perceived that it was too late to broach a struggle against their tyrannic ally, Germany would discover,—if she has not already discovered,—a new process for swallowing the country.

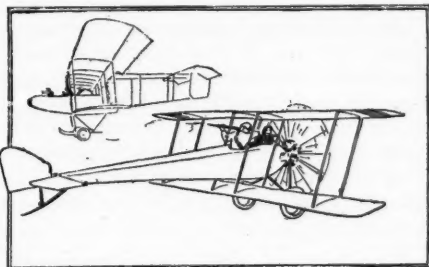
Thus we shall find reared before our faces this formidable Austro-German wall, cutting Europe into two portions. When that day comes we shall bitterly regret having allowed the absorption of Austria-Hungary by Germany.

In his concluding paragraphs the writer remarks suggestively:

As we have seen, the Prussian system does not lack amplitude. Austria-Hungary, tightly bound at first by the Customs League, would fall sooner or later under the direct domination of the Hohenzollerns. Serbia, Bulgaria, united to the Central Empires, would open the road to German extension in the Orient. Asia Minor, Mesopotamia, Persia, then, very far on the horizon,—but not too far to be dreamed of,—the Indies. What a marvelous perspective open to German commercial and military activity! But if Austria resists, if she refuses the *Zollverein*, all is compromised. Let us not forget that she holds the key of the Orient. Without her, Germany, crowded back to its limits, closely watched by the Allies, will have lost all. . . . To save Austria from German domination is to save Europe from the menacing vision of a Germany extending from Kiel to Constantinople.

## FIGHTING TACTICS IN THE AIR

AT the beginning of the great war, fighting in the air was a new science. Aviators knew little about how to take care of themselves in this new form of warfare, or how best to attack opponents. In the limited use of aeroplanes in previous wars, there had been no actual fighting. Eighteen months of experience, however, in actual warfare, with thousands of aeroplanes in daily use, has helped to develop the tactics of aerial fighting. Certain definite methods have been evolved and are adhered to when possible by opposing antagonists, although it is true that

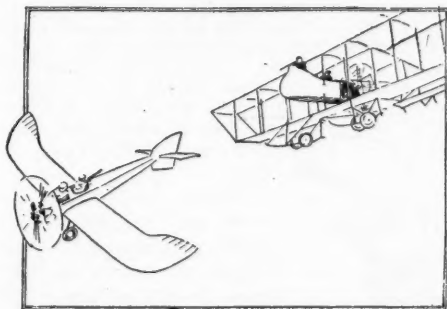


THE MOST COMMON SITUATION,—TWO AVIATORS PASS EACH OTHER AT HIGH SPEED IN OPPOSITE DIRECTIONS

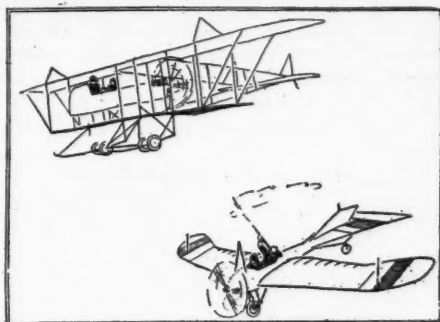
such tactics are subject to modification according to new developments in machines and the individual brilliance and initiative of the aviator.

After nearly two years of active service, veteran aviators,—says a writer in the *Automobil-Revue*, of Berne (Switzerland),—have, however, succeeded in laying down some fundamental rules to be followed in the situations more frequently confronting an aviator.

There are about half a dozen situations



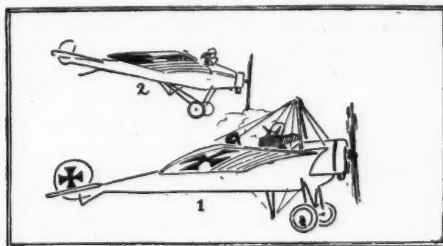
A SLOWER BIPLANE ATTACKING A LIGHTER BUT FASTER MONOPLANE  
(The latter seeks safety in rapid flight)



ATTACKING A STRONGER ADVERSARY FROM BELOW,  
—A POSITION IN WHICH THE BIPLANE IS SERIOUSLY HANDICAPPED, ITS PILOT BEING UNABLE TO SEE THE ENEMY

in which the opposing machines usually find themselves: (1) passing each other in opposite directions, with the enemy to the left; (2) flying parallel; (3) when a weaker but faster machine seeks safety in flight; (4) when rising above the hostile machine; (5) when dropping below to a position where the plane of the enemy aeroplane shuts off the view of its pilot; and (6) a circling attack of three or more machines upon a single craft.

In the first situation, where the opposing machines pass each other, the advantage of having your opponent on the left lies in the fact that it is easier to turn to aim a rifle to the left. If, however, the fighting passenger



OF THESE TWO FLIERS, NO. 1 HAS THE ADVANTAGE OF SHOOTING TO THE LEFT

happens to be a left-handed shooter, he can surprise his antagonist by taking a position to his left and shooting towards the right. This element of right and left position is still more important when the aviators are flying parallel. Then the man passing his opponent to the right has him at a disadvantage, for he can shoot to the left, while his opponent must aim toward the right. The parallel flight usually comes as the result of the pur-

suit in which the faster machine overhauls the slower, choosing its own position and altitude. Should the pursued aviator learn that his machine is slower than his opponents, he can then resort to a sudden drop, and endeavor to shoot his adversary from below. In this position, he would be protected in a measure by the wing of the opposing machine.

Weather conditions sometimes affect the struggle in the air. For instance, the pursued aviator, by flying directly towards the sun, may compel his pursuer to look directly into its blinding glare in order to locate his prey. Often, too, a cloud may providentially appear and serve to envelop a hotly-pressed scout. Another trick that may serve a good purpose when being pursued is to slow down quickly, causing the enemy machine to pass by at high speed. The slowing down process, however, must be accompanied by a simultaneous drop, otherwise the machine would naturally offer an easier target.

Enormous air-pressure at high speed in the air makes it difficult to hold and aim a rifle. Aeroplanes not fitted with regular machine

guns have, therefore, several pivots attached to their sides into which the rifle is set, these pivots permitting a certain restricted arc of fire. In order to fire beyond this arc, the rifle must be changed from one pivot to another, a process which is not made easier by a speed of seventy or eighty miles an hour. Aiming at an aeroplane going at this speed is in itself difficult. To make a hit is far more so. With a distance of, say, 500 feet between machines, allowance must be made for their relative speed, and the fraction of time required by the bullet for its flight. To make anything like an accurate guess under these conditions is far from being easy of accomplishment, and a hit is largely a matter of chance.

The fundamental rules evolved in aerial warfare are not, of course, monopolized by any one of the belligerents, nor do they apply to any particular machine. They are simply the result of the practical experience of the aviators on all sides, and will doubtless be added to considerably as the war goes on and experience in the use of the aerial arm continues.

## ANIMALS THAT LIVE IN TRENCHES

NOW that so large a part of civilized humanity has reverted temporarily to the domestic habits as well as the primitive ferocity of our ancestors, the cave-men and cliff-dwellers, it is interesting to note the analogies between the modern trenches built for defensive warfare and the burrow and underground tunnels constructed by various animals as refuges and homes. M. Henri Coupin has an article on this subject in a late number of *La Nature* (Paris). He calls our attention to the fact that the highest as well as the lowest orders of animals construct such earthworks, for there are numerous examples among mammals and birds as well as among spiders and insects.

One of the best known earth-dwelling

mammals is the common mole, whose delicate fur has of late years become an important article of commerce, and whose French name, *taupe*, has entered the English language as a synonym of its soft neutral color.

Moles are past masters of the art of excavating the soil and disappearing from view. They are aided in their underground road-making by their large fore-paws, provided with powerful claws, which serve at once for picks, shovels, and rakes. If one of them be extracted from his retreat and placed on the ground, it digs its way under so rapidly that it disappears in the twinkling of an eye, and then establishes a system of subterranean canals in comparison with which the "bowels" of our enemies' trenches are but playthings. To try to pursue it among them is a very difficult affair, and only an experienced mole-digger can succeed at it.



THE MOLE IN HIS TUNNEL—HIS BONY PAW



Besides its tunnels the moles establish at certain points "dungeons" which serve as general living quarters. In the interior of the dungeon is a rounded chamber which serves for a resting-place. This is four or



five inches in diameter. It is surrounded by two circular concentric conduits or galleries. Of these the external one is arranged on the same plane as the rest-chamber, from which it is from seven to twelve inches distant, while the one inside is at a higher level. From the inner room three passages run obliquely upward, opening into the inner circular gallery, which is connected with the outer gallery by five or six descending passages alternating with the first ones. From this outer gallery run eight or ten diverging passages running in every direction but curving to enter the principal tunnel. A safety passage descends from the interior chamber, then curves upward and opens into an air-passage or chimney. The walls of this elaborate earth-citadel are thick, smooth, and well packed. In the chamber is a soft bed of leaves, grass, rootlets, etc., mostly brought from the outside by the little creature to make itself comfortable.

Other well-known burrowing animals are the fox, rabbit, and badger. The first of these digs or steals a deep chamber, whose ramifications end in a large *cul-de-sac*.

The chambers are arranged around the principal burrow which is three meters deep (over three yards), with a perimeter of from fifteen to twenty meters and a dungeon of one meter in depth. The galleries communicate with each other by transverse passages and have divers openings to serve in case of flight.

The badger also seeks safety in an almost subterranean life. . . . Its strength enables it to dig with surprising rapidity. In a few minutes it is completely buried. Its vigorous forepaws, whose digits are completely united and armed with solid claws, are a great help; its hind feet help it to throw out earth; but when the work is too advanced it proceeds backward, thus sweeping all the earth outwards. Of all

the animals which dwell in burrows the badger builds the largest and takes most precautions. The tunnels are seven to ten meters long, and their openings are some thirty paces apart. The dungeon extends a meter and a half under ground; if it is on a steep slope this depth sometimes reaches four or five meters, but in this case there are usually ventilating tunnels which open vertically.

Other mammals which build similar homes are the rabbit, marmoset, prairie dog, and ground-squirrel, as well as the "fenece" fox of Northern Africa, and the ornithorynchus. It is more surprising to find such frail and air-loving creatures as birds building earthworks for their homes, yet the common cliff-swallow performs an immense work with apparent ease.

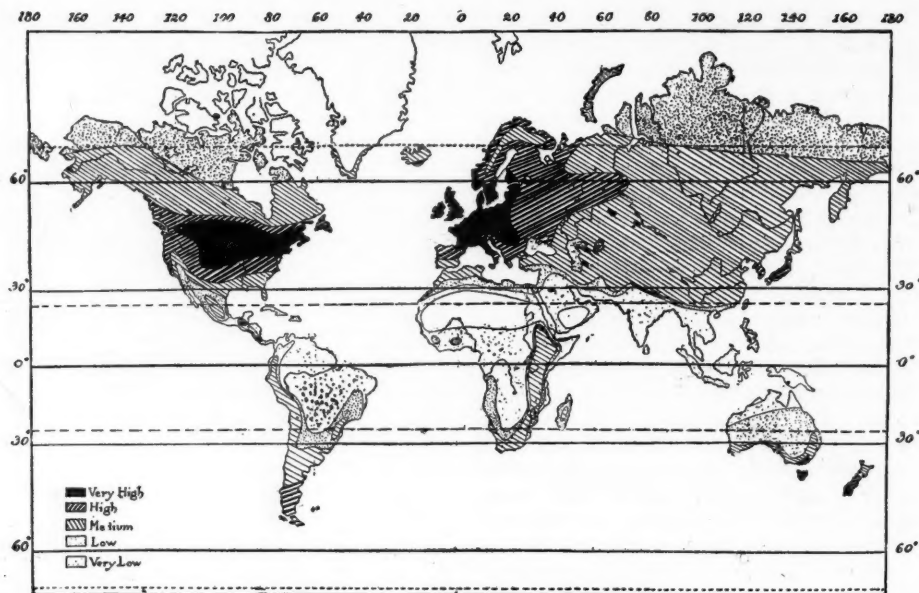
In two or three days a pair will dig a cavity five to eight centimeters at the entrance, still more spacious at the bottom, and opening into a gallery one or even two meters long. At this time the activity of these birds is almost prodigious. . . . Very curious too is another bird, the *Geositte*, called by the Spanish the *Carita* or little mason, which nests at the end of a narrow burrow extending horizontally to a distance of two meters. . . . Darwin writes: The bird chooses to build its residence on a little slope on firm though sandy soil, on the edge of a road or stream. Here (in *Bahia blanca*) the walls are made of earth. I noticed that those which surrounded the house where I lived were pierced in many places with round holes. . . . I interrogated my landlord on the subject and he complained bitterly of these birds, and later I myself saw them at work. A singular thing is that they seem to have no idea of thickness; else they would not attempt to dig their burrows in clay walls whose dimensions they should know from continually flying around them. I am persuaded that the bird is stupefied when it finds itself suddenly in the daylight after penetrating the wall.

## DOES CIVILIZATION DEPEND UPON CLIMATE?

THE books and papers of Dr. Ellsworth Huntington constitute a continued story of breathless interest, which has now been "running" for more than ten years. Their fascination is cumulative. Hence the last book in this series, "Civilization and Climate," is a momentous document. The busy citizen will find this writer's address, "Weather and Civilizations," published in the *Bulletin of the Geographical Society of Philadelphia*, a handy syllabus of the work just mentioned, and the same journal con-

tains an appreciative sketch of Huntington's career by Professor J. Russell Smith.

Dr. Huntington is a geographer, but his conception of geography is a broad one. With equal justice he might be rated an historian, for he has illuminated history by showing how it may be interpreted in terms of man's physical environment. Anthropologist, geologist, climatologist,—he has ranged through a broad field, but all for the one purpose of gathering evidence in behalf of a definite hypothesis, which may be thus epitomized:



DISTRIBUTION OF HUMAN ENERGY ON THE BASIS OF CLIMATE

The climate of any given region of the globe is subject to fluctuations having periods of from one to several centuries. Human affairs are vastly influenced by climate. Hence climatic fluctuations are one of the capital factors in history. Last but not least, climate explains, in a large measure, the existing distribution of civilization and human efficiency, and needs to be reckoned with more consciously than it has been heretofore in the economic and political arrangements of mankind. In the *Bulletin* article just mentioned the author says:

We have impressions about good climates and bad, and we are quite sure that tropical people are inefficient largely because of their climate. Yet how much do we know of the ideal climate? At what season of the year do we work most rapidly or most slowly? Are we most competent on clear days, cloudy days, or rainy days? Do the mind and the body respond to the weather in the same way?

To find out the real effect of climate we need accurate statistical tests. It is not safe, however, to base our judgment merely on comparisons between people who live in different parts of the world. The differences thus found may be due to many things beside climate. They may arise from race, food, religion, social environment, and many other causes. The only safe procedure seems to be to compare people with themselves at different seasons in a variable climate. For this purpose I have taken nearly fifteen thousand people distributed from Connecticut and Pennsylvania on the North to Florida on the South. About thirteen thousand were factory operatives who were doing piece work, and whose wages depend entirely on their own feelings.

About 1600 of Dr. Huntington's subjects were students at West Point and Annapolis, whose daily marks were examined to see whether they varied according to the weather or season. The results of these investigations showed a striking dependence of both physical and mental efficiency upon three weather elements; viz., mean temperature, variability of temperature (*i. e.*, the changes from day to day), and humidity. The curves by which the author has exhibited these relations are full of surprises. For example, it appears that our efficiency is not, as commonly supposed, at its lowest in midsummer, but in midwinter, while we are most efficient in October and November. The dependence of human energy upon temperature is scarcely less intimate than that of the activities of the vegetable kingdom upon the same element! Temperature variability depends especially upon the passage of cyclonic storms, and this stimulating element of climate is, accordingly, at its maximum in the regions where such disturbances are most frequent; viz., the northeastern part of the United States and northwestern Europe.

The work of factory operatives from Connecticut to Florida and of students at West Point and Annapolis shows that when to-day's temperature is the same as yesterday's people tend to work slowly, while if there is a change they work faster. Of course the change may be too extreme, but that occurs only occasionally. With ordinary changes a rise in temperature, taking the year as a whole, is somewhat stimulative, while a drop

of from four to ten degrees causes people to work faster than at any other time. This means that each of the storms which pass over us gives a distinct impetus and makes us work faster.

People work best with high humidity in winter, while in the spring a relative humidity of about 75 per cent. and in summer about 65 per cent. is best. The surprising thing is that when the air is dry people's energy declines at all seasons. Apparently this is one of the great reasons why our power to work falls off so badly in winter in spite of the fact that we protect ourselves from the outside air by means of our heated houses. Within our houses the winter air is extraordinarily dry, worse than any except the most extreme deserts. This parches the mucous membranes and renders them sensitive. It appears not only to have a direct effect upon our capacity for work, but also to make us sensitive to colds. Thus dryness is one of the most important causes of disease and of our high winter mortality. If we could devise means to make the air in our houses, office, schools, and factories more moist in winter, we should help ourselves immensely. At the same time we should save fuel, for it would not be necessary to have the houses so warm.

With the information thus acquired as to the actual effects of atmospheric conditions upon man, the author proceeds to compare the geographical distribution of climates with that of "civilization." He publishes two charts, one of which (here reproduced) shows

how "climatic energy" would be distributed over the world if all people were influenced by weather in the same way as the subjects of the author's experiments. The other shows the distribution of civilization as determined from the opinions of a large number of geographers, ethnologists, and others, of various nationalities, whose collaboration was sought by the author in connection with this unique inquiry. The two charts are strikingly similar.

Civilization and climatic energy appear to go hand in hand. This suggests the far-reaching hypothesis that a stimulating climate is an essential condition of civilization. Doubtless there are several other equally important conditions. Only a race of high mental capacity can be expected to rise high. Only a race which develops great institutions and which has high standards of education, morals, and religion can reach the highest levels.

In considering this hypothesis one at once inquires about the past. Mesopotamia, Syria, Egypt, Carthage, and other great civilizations grew up in regions where the climatic energy is low. The wonderful Maya civilization in Central America made its growth in what is now one of the worst climatic regions of the globe. Do not these things prove that a stimulating climate is by no means essential to civilization? The answer lies in a study of the climate of the past.

## NEW YORK'S HEALTH INSURANCE PROJECT

A FAVORITE delusion of the American people is that they are less conservative than the citizens of the Old World. If just the reverse were not the case, we should not, as we do, repeatedly behold great social reforms pass through their experimental stages in Europe and await adoption in this country until we are in a position to profit by, and avoid, the mistakes of our European cousins.

In that time, which now seems so long ago, when Great Britain was at peace abroad while convulsed with several varieties of strife at home, one of her severe trials was getting adjusted to a far-reaching scheme of compulsory sickness insurance,—or, as certain advocates of this form of philanthropy prefer to call it, "health insurance," a term that emphasizes the scope it is designed to give to the methods of preventive medicine. The British Insurance Act, adopted at the close of 1911, went into operation in January, 1913, after the almost-unanimous opposition of the British medical profession had been effectually broken down. The lack of tact on the part of the government and the

misconceptions on the part of the medical fraternity which were jointly responsible for this period of strife furnish an object lesson by which the legislators of the State of New York will be able to profit in dealing with a bill introduced by Senator Ogden Mills on January 24. The *New York Times*, in an illuminating discussion of this bill, says:

Although its promoters, members of the Social Insurance Committee of the American Association for Labor Legislation, have been working on the project for more than three years and have distributed over 13,000 copies of the tentative bill, the plan comes as a surprise to many people, and a wave of inquiry is sweeping through associations of employers. The underwriters of casualty policies are also summoned in sudden council, and physicians whose fortunes might be affected are manifesting grave concern.

"Paternalism," "socialism," are slogans of the foes of this measure, which is bound to arouse discussion in every direction. It means in general terms an effort to introduce into the United States the compulsory health insurance of Great Britain or the sickness insurance of Germany, so that every manual worker and every wage-earner whose income does not exceed \$100 a month will, when he becomes ill, have the services of a physi-

cian, attendance, and even medicine and surgical appliances, and that for at least half a year, if his disability continues, he will receive a weekly allowance for the support of himself and his family. Death and funeral benefits are included.

The association which is pushing this project through the instrumentality of a committee of earnest and influential men believes that if it becomes law in New York, all the other States of the Union will ultimately adopt similar measures. Workmen's compensation acts now in force in New York and elsewhere may be regarded as paving the way to this more sweeping enactment.

One-fifth of the expenses of maintaining the compulsory insurance plan is to be borne by the State, which would supervise its administration, and the balance is to be shared equally by employer and employee.

The committee has been busily engaged since 1912 in gathering information bearing on the proposed law, this investigation including first-hand observation of the workings of similar schemes in Great Britain and Germany.

The social aspect of bodily ills in this country escaped serious attention until statisticians discovered that every one of the nation's 30,000,000 wage-earners loses approximately nine days from illness every year, that the cost of their medical treatment is \$180,000,000 annually, and that \$500,000,000 expresses the resultant loss in wages.

As wage studies reveal, says the committee, that the savings of many workmen are inadequate to meet the burden of medical care, it is necessary to prevent illness as much as possible, and to distribute the cost of it so that it will not

produce poverty and dependence. The New York Charity Organization Society reports that 75 per cent. of the applications made to it for aid are due to losses incurred by illness.

It is the committee's belief that the burden can be greatly lightened, and important economies effected, by distributing the cost of human ills among workmen, employers, and the State. It maintains that its insurance system, seemingly radical at first glance, will reduce its own cost by preventing illness, and will thereby improve the health of the American people.

And this brings one to the status of the medical profession. Will the fortunes of the doctors rise or fall under the proposed régime? In spite of the theoretical indorsement which the scheme has received from various medical organizations, many general practitioners are disturbed. The measure, if adopted, will, it is assumed, tend more and more to make the physician a servant of the State rather than the possessor of a comfortable private practice or possibly a precarious one.

However, Dr. M. M. Davis, of Boston, who has discussed the physician's point of view on this subject in the *New York Medical Record*, finds the experience of British medical men extremely encouraging.

Despite the fact that physicians felt that their calling would be imperiled, Dr. Davis declares that their average income has increased from \$750 a year to \$2000. This is due to the fact, he says, that, although the fees charged average \$2 each, all are collected, because back of the organizations is the power of the state.

At the same time it is regarded as carrying the profession a step further into the realm of preventive medicine, now proclaimed as new, although the Chinese long ago decided that the physician should be paid for keeping man well rather than for ministering to him when sickness befell.

## AN ENGLISH VIEW OF AMERICAN LITERARY CRITICISM

IT has been said that there is no American literary criticism worthy of the name, that we are unable to recognize and appraise what our literature achieves, and that, therefore, our "standard of literary values rests upon sand." Mr. Edward Garnett, writing in the February issue of the *Atlantic Monthly*, endeavors to explain the reasons why our criticism is considered worthless, or of such fluctuating values that no dependence can be placed upon it as a guide to a correct estimate of American literature.

Mr. Garnett does not exalt English methods or English standards, but he thinks the Englishman is less liable to believe in shams, because of his centuries of practicality and

independence in artistic judgment; also that the press in general in England has preserved a certain catholicity of taste from its long traditions of critical integrity, and that it takes pride in keeping the fires of pure intellectuality burning brightly. Criticism in England keeps a certain level of excellence; in America, while there are admirable bits here and there in various daily papers, weekly and monthly journals, the truth is often drowned in "the great flood tide of mediocrity sweeping past. And the rank and file of reviewers in the daily press (with honorable exceptions) remind one of the triumphant Ephraimites at the passage of the Jordan."



If an unorthodox artist, or poet or novelist who would pass over with his work does not frame the four great shibboleths aright, he and his book are banned and cast in derision on the rocks. These four shibboleths, tests for literary righteousness, which taken together appear to exercise the tyranny of a great superstition over the modern American imagination, might perhaps be classified as (a) the commercial-success shibboleth; (b) the moral shibboleth; (c) the idealistic or sentimental shibboleth; (d) the optimistic shibboleth.

Why is it that the American mind as represented by its literature is so prone to accept conventional, stereotyped valuations in place of first-hand, fearless analyses? The peculiar vice of commercialized civilization, and especially Americanized civilization, lies in the association of what is useful and profitable materially with what is mean and ugly spiritually and esthetically. The sin of ugliness is predominant in the cities. It is reflected in the mental atmosphere of the newspapers, with their unending stream of drab or sensationally colored reports of life's multitudinous happenings. The ordinary man who eagerly accepts his newspaper's superficial commentaries and its jumbled scrawls and transcripts of news, served up at lightning pressure by the pressmen on the trail, does not ask that these reports shall be palpably idealized, or moralized, or grossly conventionalized. But when the poet—Whitman yesterday, or Mr. Robert Frost to-day—shows us the essential beauty or force of life, working in the familiar scene, in the characteristic human impulse, the American reviewer applies instinctively his shibboleths: Is this piece of literature commercially profitable? Is it morally useful? Is it idealistically watertight? Is it happy in its ending?

Mr. Garnett finds that this is the attitude of sundry critics who do not like to face truth, and this weakness reacts and upsets the scale of literary judgment. We grow confused before facts; our faith is disturbed; we try to think that life must be not as it is, but as we would like to have it, and our criticism is affected by our personal experiences and standards of life.

Similarly the Puritan's confused fear of sensuous beauty, and his desperate shutting of the eyes to the interdependence of body and soul, of flesh and spirit, is a sign of his own weakness, of his lack of truthfulness. In such an atmosphere of make-believe there is and can be neither real art nor real beauty, dominated as it is by consideration of utility and material profit and ideals, and divorced as it is from mental sincerity and the beauty of truth.

Concerning our treatment of fiction, we are decidedly in error in ranking all kinds of fiction apparently in the same category. For instance, one might write a criticism of a novel by Mr. W. D. Howells, and a novel by Ernest Poole, and one by Theodore Dreiser and mislead the reader if we did not state that Mr. Howells' work, character-

ized by a rare quality of vision, artistic power, subtlety, and a unique quality all his own, to use Mr. Garnett's words, was in category (a); and that the work of Mr. Poole and Mr. Dreiser which we welcome for many admirable characteristics combined with great creative imagination is in category (b).

In recapitulating his theory of criticism in general, Mr. Garnett writes:

To recapitulate: as regards fiction and poetry no subject or theme is outside the pale of art. The literary artist is known by the spirit of his treatment; and fresh beauties, fresh forces are generated in a greater or lesser degree by the work of creative spirits.

It is by this unique temperamental quality, something peculiar to himself as expressed in the fresh intensity, power, or charm of his imagination and insight, that we assess the rank of a literary artist.

It is from the perception of the significant relations of the living parts to the general scheme of nature and life that new pieces of art are continually being born.

Any conventional valuations, social or moral, as to what is "good," "beautiful," or "useful," or any stereotyped academic or esthetic formulas are necessarily inimical to the powers of art.

In mediocre art the public sees its own face as in a glass, and loves to see mirrored back to it its own familiar features.

The critic may aim at showing what significant light a piece of indifferent or bad art may cast on the life of society, but his main object is, first to lend an attentive ear to what a literary artist is telling us, and then to make clear anything false, commonplace, or weak in his outlook or treatment, and to hail any elements of original power or beauty.

In the face of his impressions as to our shortcomings in the matter of criticism, he encourages us to believe in the future of American literature, that is, provided that our native critics do not smother it with their untruthful, inartistic criticism.

Let me say here, that I believe firmly that American literature will count many great, original achievements within a couple of generations. All the pith and sap of a great literature are there, now inchoate in the social body, a ferment of spiritual force which sooner or later must burst into flower. The blend of buoyancy and gravity in the American temperament, of rare audacity and questioning conscientiousness, enriched by the foreign ingredients lavishly cast for generations into the national melting-pot, will find expression by and by in multiple free-running springs of original genius, in works of conquering vigor and triumphant energy. But American critics, in their aim of hailing and supporting a native American literature, must make a continuous and sustained effort to penetrate the blank, rolling mist of conventional valuations, which ever threatens to veil and smother the works of original power and beauty.

## AN ITALIAN TRIBUTE TO SALVINI

A SYMPATHETIC tribute to Italy's of impersonating the "David" of Alfieri's greatest tragedian, Tommaso Salvini, play. Of this the writer relates the following incident:

who died on January 1, 1916, in the eighty-seventh year of his age, appears in *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) from the pen of his friend, Signor Gattesco Gatteschi. In the writer's brief notice he can only touch lightly, here and there, upon some salient point or characteristic episode of Salvini's long and honorable career. First and foremost, he impresses

us with the conviction that the actor's personality in real life was no less noble and generous than that he so often revealed upon the stage. His warm appreciation of the excellence of the modern school of actors and playwrights, his devotion and loyalty to his family and his undying love of his art, are illustrated by a number of intimate reminiscences.

While in the interpretation of the masterpieces of dramatic art Salvini always sought, by careful and prolonged study, to seize the meaning of the poet, and to assimilate his conception of the character, he possessed in

an unusual degree the power to give a distinct form and substance to many characters but indifferently portrayed by their authors. Notable in this respect was his remarkable rendering of the part of "Corrado" in Giacometti's rather conventional play, "La Morte Civile," where the never-failing applause of the audience was almost exclusively due to the constructive power of the actor.

Salvini's impersonation of "Saul" in Alfieri's Biblical tragedy was second only to his peerless "Othello," in Signor Gatteschi's opinion. This part was a favorite one in his ripe manhood. In the closing years of his artistic career, however, when already past his seventieth year, he conceived the design

A few evenings before the representation, Salvini invited myself and Florizel, the dramatic critic of the *Fieramosca*, to dine with him at his home. After dessert and before beginning to sip our coffee, he recited to us the entire rôle of the Hebrew hero pursued by the hatred of his king. Rarely in my life have I enjoyed an intellectual

treat equal to that of hearing his melodious and clearly discriminating rendering of Alfieri's noble lines.

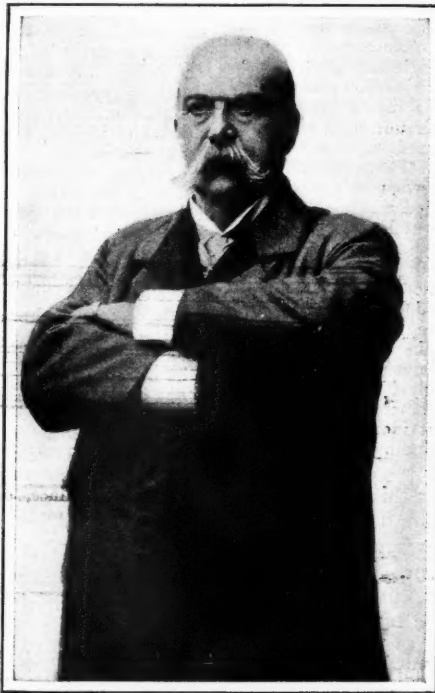
But when the recital was over, and our coffee finished, we rose from the table, our host, whose voice had retained all its freshness and beauty, but whose limbs were heavy with age, was forced to make a considerable effort to get on his feet, breathing heavily the while, and with hands firmly pressed down on the arms of his chair. Involuntarily I exchanged glances with my friend, and our looks signified: How will he manage, as David, to rise from his knees on the stage?

However, on the night of the representation, under the powerful inspiration of his art, his youthful vigor returned to him and he moved as freely as when in the early days of his career, his declamation of the

lines of "Egisto" in the Italian version of Voltaire's "Mérope" had drawn from his master, Gustavo Modena, the prophetic words: "He seems expressly fitted to realize one day Alfieri's ideal of 'David'."

As is commonly the case with those whose life has been exceptionally prolonged, Salvini was spared a painful death, something his highly keyed sensibility had much dreaded. In marked contrast to what is popularly supposed to be the histrionic temperament, one of his last requests was that his funeral ceremonies should be severely plain. . . . On a bronze sarcophagus made under his own direction, and placed some years ago in the beautiful cemetery on the hill of San Miniato, overlooking Florence, he had this concise inscription engraved:

T. SALVINI ATTORE  
SECOLO XIX



TOMMASO SALVINI

## GERMAN-AMERICANS AND GERMAN LITERATURE

AN eminently fair statement of the relation of the German-American to the "Kultur" of his native land appears in the last number of the German-American magazine *Walhalla* (New York). This article, from the pen of Dr. Camillo Von Kleuze, of Providence, a man of long connection with American universities, emphasizes the duties of such citizens both to the native and to the adopted country, rather than unduly glorifying their contributions to American life. Prof. von Kleuze writes as follows:

We German-Americans are alarmingly exposed to the danger of being lacking in culture. A child born in America of German-American parents almost always loses touch with the traditions of German culture without becoming familiar in his home life with Anglo-Saxon cultural values. When he comes in contact later with English literature, in the upper classes of the high school or the college, he is only too often lacking in the background possessed by the child of cultivated American parents. In later life the disadvantages of this are shown by his indifference in general to cultural values as such.

It is in this way that we may, at least in part, explain the circumstance, not very complimentary to ourselves, that we German-Americans have contributed comparatively little to the cultural life of the United States. We all know that the greatest foundations for cultural purposes, (colleges, libraries, collections of pictures; yes, even the great metropolitan orchestras), owe their existence or maintenance to the public-spirited generosity of citizens of Anglo-Saxon or Irish ancestry.

The German-Americans are highly esteemed throughout the whole country as virtuous, industrious, and peaceful citizens, but they play a very small part, considered as a cultural force. Let us not try to meet this reproach with the reply that our Germandom is largely recruited from classes which even at home possessed neither the leisure nor the means to devote themselves to the cultivation of the intellectual life. For we must remember that many of the most eminent patrons of our American cultural life spring from similar classes among the Anglo-Saxon and Irish populations.

These conditions are all the more regrettable and mortifying because the general level of education in Germany stands at a level unattained elsewhere, and during the last century and a half Germany has contributed more than any other land to the enrichment of the higher life of humanity.

Dr. Von Kleuze here refers to the present war and says that one significant outcome of it has been to bring home to his compatriots the fact that their position as factors in

American life is far from brilliant. He declares that the time has come for them to organize themselves culturally as well as politically and show their fellow citizens that they are something more than patient and diligent beasts of burden. Most important of all, he thinks, is it that they should take measures to rob of its sting the reproach so often heard of late: "The German-American has done next to nothing to enrich American culture." However exaggerated this accusation may be, he admits that it would never have been made had there not been a measure of truth in it.

We owe it to ourselves, we owe it to the old home, to which we are indebted for so much, to rid ourselves of this reproach. But we owe it, above all, to the new home, to whose glorious upbuilding we would fain labor with zeal.

For we dare not forget for an instant that the America of the future will be the home of our children and our children's children, and that now the moment has come to make felt as never before our influence in the construction of this home. We are continually hearing it repeated that America is essentially an Anglo-Saxon land, governed by Anglo-Saxon traditions and views of life, and that it is the duty of the foreigner to meekly subject himself to this condition.

Prof. Von Kleuze very justly objects to the idea that the America of the twentieth or twenty-first century should remain essentially Anglo-Saxon. On the contrary, he holds, a new popular soul, or "folk-psyche," is being formed, which we have the right to hope will be deeper and more many-sided.

And shall we German-Americans sit idly with our hands in our laps, and not contribute our share, so that German traditions and German ideals may likewise have their part in the building of the new national American culture? But how can we achieve this when we allow our children to grow up lacking all knowledge of German cultural values? The pressing question, therefore, is: How shall we proceed to guard against this?

The mother tongue is the essential vehicle of culture. The first step, therefore, is to see that the children receive the inherited treasure of the German speech. We can not expect, and need not expect, that the children shall master it completely as a mother-tongue. On the other hand, the ground for the reception of German culture can very well be prepared in early youth by the telling, and later the reading, of the intimate German folk-tales, by German picture-books and German songs. In later years comprehension of the German nature can be furthered by household readings of Schiller, Goethe, Koerner,

Whland, Heine, Storm, Stifter, Ebner-Eschenbach, Isolde Kurz, and for adults Rudolf Herzog, Gottfried Keller, and others.

In this way the German language will not be a burden to the child nor a hindrance in the learning of English as a mother-tongue, but a source of pleasure and stimulation. Probably, too, every German family can take an illustrated journal, such as *Die Woche* or the *Leipziger Illustrierte*, which will keep alive interest in modern German culture.

The author also advises citizens of towns having public libraries to insist on the inclusion of German books, so that adults may keep abreast of German thought. He gives some interesting advice as to these, recommending among novelists such writers as Ricardo Huch, G. Keller, C. F. Meyer, Maria von Ebner-Eschenbach, Wilhelm Raabe, Clara Viebig, Isolde Kurz, Ernst Zahn, Otto Ernst, Thomas Mann, Rudolf Herzog, R. H. Bartsch, and Handel-Mazetti. He makes interesting comments on

Germany's well-known classic writers, as well as on Hebbel, Hauptmann, Treitschke, and Nietzsche, and his closing paragraphs are well worth attention:

This brief sketch of the works of modern German literature can be easily completed by every one who goes deeper into the subject. Scarcely any literature is so rich and many-sided as the German, and it reflects a singularly forceful and poetic folk-character. We must not forget that at present other nations (*das Ausland*) are doing all in their power to lessen its influence as much as possible.

But we in whose veins runs German blood, who bring with us from our very cradles an understanding of the German nature and German thought, should regard ourselves as the guardians in the new world of the German cultural thought. And this not from any assumed superiority to our fellow-citizens, nor from a desire to separate ourselves from them to form a state within a state, but from the conviction that herein consists our contribution to the culture of this country, and that by this contribution we can enrich and deepen American culture.

## THE REVIVAL OF INTEREST IN FOLK-SONG

FOR a period of several years we have had a revival of interest in folk-song in the United States. And while this interest has extended to other countries, it is in this country that it has assumed a definite form, that of organized research in the different States. As we have a very small stock of antique ballads, we have collected Serbian, Ukrainian, Scandinavian, German, French, and Spanish ballads and hunted out those that had drifted across the seas with our forefathers. In 1914, the Bureau of Education in Washington issued a bulletin listing 305 English and Scotch ballads, and urged the school-teachers of the various States to form ballad societies to rescue the vanishing folk-song before they should be utterly forgotten.

An excellent informational article, "Ballads Surviving in the United States," by Prof. C. Alphonso Smith, is published in the current issue of the *Musical Quarterly* (New York). Dr. Smith writes that in the quest for the ballad the Southern States have been most successful. Eight States have made reports on ballads:

Tennessee reports eight as surviving through oral transmission in her borders, Georgia nine, Texas ten, South Carolina thirteen, North Carolina nineteen, Missouri twenty, Kentucky twenty-four, and Virginia thirty-seven. To this list must

be added West Virginia, which, with a folk-lore society founded as late as July, 1915, already reports twelve traditional ballads. With duplicates omitted this makes a total of forty-two traditional ballads in the Southern States out of the seventy-six found in the United States. Nearly half of those reported from the South have been collected in the last two years and seven of them, —viz., "John of Hazlegreen," "Robin Hood and Guy of Gisborne," "Robin Hood's Death," "Robin Hood and Little John," "Robin Hood and the Tanner," "Robin Hood Rescuing Will Stutley," and "Bessy Bell and Mary Gray,"—have as yet been found nowhere else in the United States. The five ballads most widely distributed in New England are "The Elfin Knight," "Lady Isabel and the Elf-Knight," "Lord Randal," "Bonny Barbara Allen," and "The Gypsy Laddie"; the five most widely found in the South are "Lady Isabel and the Elf-Knight," "Lord Thomas and Fair Annet," "Lord Lovel," "Bonny Barbara Allen," and "The Maid Freed from the Gallows."

Professor Smith calls attention to the fact that our ballad-collecting must be done quickly if we are to do it at all, because illiterate people grow more and more unwilling to admit familiarity with these songs. Then in other instances the sources of our own folk-songs are no longer fertile. The great lumber camps for several generations produced many original ballads that are for the most part completely lost. In the North Woods of New York State fifty years ago,



many "shanties" in the lumber districts held contests in ballad-singing. Each shanty had its particular songs, commemorating incidents of the logging camps or the virtues of the bosses of their respective camps.

In the South, the negro folk-song, which was usually either a chant to accompany monotonous labor or the spontaneous outburst of religious zeal, as in the case of the "spirituals," is vanishing. As the plantations were dismembered and the negro was forced out into individualistic industrial life, the emotional life that found utterance in his songs was galvanized into another form of expression. Thomas Wentworth Higginson wrote in his essay on "Negro Spirituals" that he could not discover exactly how these spirituals were composed, whether they grew by accretion, or had a conscious or definite origin in some leading mind. One day when he was being rowed from Beaufort to Ladies Island, the boatman made a confession: "Some good spirituals," he said, "are start jest out o' curiosity. I bin a-raise a sing myself once."

But there will never be a real renaissance of ballad interest in the United States until we realize that the ballad is unique not only in its origin but in its perpetuation. In other words, these ballads that survive are not already made but are still in the making. There is no standard version of any living ballad in the sense in which we speak of the standard version of Gray's "Elegy" or Poe's "Raven." When Gray and Poe died their poems ceased to be malleable material. But as long as a ballad circulates by oral transmission it is always in process of making or re-making. The first version, if we could catch it hot from the lips of the composing throng, would not, through mere priority, be one whit more authentic or authoritative than the latest version, provided the latest version was also the product of the people. Let us think of a ballad as a thought or deed or situation or incident or motif adventuring forth to get itself artistically expressed. The standard version, if one insists on the word, is merely the most adequate incarnation that the wandering concept is fortunate enough to assume: it is the best version, whether made in Great Britain or America, whether the child of the fifteenth or the twentieth century.

### British Ballads

In the *English Review* for December, Sir Henry Newbolt presents an interesting discussion of British ballads. The article is of especial import to collectors of American folk-songs, inasmuch as most of our surviving early ballads are largely drawn from English sources.

The author finds that only a part of our

pleasure in the old ballads is due to the fact that they were intrinsically good poetry. An analysis of the ballads that hold their place through many generations reveals one remarkable quality, which is not intellectual nor actually necessary to the telling of the story, a quality that "seems to be added suddenly, beyond the expectation of the hearer, beyond the intention of the singer himself." Exactly what this quality may be, Sir Henry cannot tell us. He intimates that there may be "visitings" of a power beyond us, and that they may come to the humblest as well as the greatest of poets. He finds that there is in them a certain magic that is unexplainable; they contain the essence of "the sudden glories of pure romance, the mystery of shadows by which love and youth are turned into agony, and agony again to loveliness." He does not think we can put away the ballad-form unless we believe that the life of nations and individuals in the future can not be in a measure similar to that of the past.

That is not an easy belief at this moment; to some of us it has never been an easy belief. It is true that for generations now our greatest poetry has been subjective, introspective, analytical,—often so intellectual as to be a reflection upon life rather than itself a form of life. But on the other side there have been changes too; the consciousness of national life has been so intensified that epic poetry has become once more possible. The ballads are, before all things, epic; they are the heroic life of a people, told in lyric episodes. What is Mr. Kipling's "Ballad of East and West"? Is it a personal anecdote in verse? No, for the name of the hero is never mentioned; he is the Colonel's son, the servant of the White Queen, the type of the heroic West. What is Mr. Hardy's great poem "The Dynasts"? A drama in form, but an epic in form of thought, for it is concerned with individuals only as units of national life. To these reflections our present experience is adding another; we are looking day by day upon a battle of nations, where valor is of little account unless it is the valor of millions, and where the bonniest fighter asks for no glory but the realization that he has "done his bit." The poets will in time sing of this battle, and will thereby express a multitude of individual feelings, their own and other men's, in forms which will be new and necessary. But it may be that one or two, less distinguished, less differentiated from the national type, will be moved to express more elementary feelings by a more objective method. If so, they will be likely enough to utter in the old ballad form,—a form, I believe, still of very powerful enchantment, capable of moving the heart both with the sound of the trumpet and with the deeper music of the harp of Binnorie, strung with remembrance of the dead.

# THE NEW BOOKS

## ESSAYS, COMMENT, AND CRITICISM

RUPERT BROOKE'S "Letters from America"<sup>1</sup> have been collected and are now published in book form accompanied by a discerning and sympathetic preface by Henry James. In May, 1913, Rupert Brooke started on a journey to the United States, Canada, and the South Seas. Most of his letters were originally published in the *Westminster Gazette*; a few in the *New Statesman* soon after the outbreak of the war. They are valuable not so much for the actual observations they record as for the evidence they give of the reactions of a new objective world on radiant youth and genius. In the early letters, one feels the groping mind of a boy whose deeper emotions are unshaken by harsh or passionate contact with the realities of life. The charm of the letters increases as the poet's mind expanded and reacted, reflecting the joy of his freedom in the mirror of his mind, the images gathering brightness from the glow of an untarnished spirit. But after all, one feels in the letters,—as in Rupert Brooke's poetry,—that what matters to us is not so much what he did, as what he *was*. Henry James pictures him as a fortunate creature beloved by the gods, dogged by the same felicity that seemed to attend Sidney; "Rupert expressed us *all*, at the highest tide of our actuality," he writes. This preface of James's is one of the best bits of writing he has done in recent years, for he has fixed the image of Rupert Brooke beyond even the intimate weaving of our sympathies, within the sacred circle of that inner intellectual vision that is as permanent as the soul of the race.

An article on the life and career of Rupert Brooke appeared in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* for October, 1915, and comment on his "Collected Poems" in the issue of February, 1916.

"Affirmations,"<sup>2</sup> by Havelock Ellis, presents a discussion of fundamental questions of life and morality in the form of five studies, the subjects of which are: Nietzsche, Zola, Huysmans, Casanova, and St. Francis of Assisi. Out of the affirmations of these men so opposed to each other in canons of life and art, the author wishes us to seek stimulus that will better arm us for the conflict of life. His view of Nietzsche is sympathetic; that of Zola, depreciatory, and the study of St. Francis presents a somewhat unfamiliar picture of the beloved Saint. The appreciation of Casanova is a delight, and that of Huysmans a work of genius, a splendid elucidation of the whole modern emotional movement, which insists that the "spiritual cosmogony finally rests, not indeed on a tortoise, but on the emotional impulses of the mammal vertebrate which constitutes us men."

<sup>1</sup> Letters from America. By Rupert Brooke. Scribners. (With portrait.) 180 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>2</sup> Affirmations. By Havelock Ellis. Houghton, Mifflin. 252 pp. \$1.75.

"In Pastures Green"<sup>3</sup> is a most enjoyable book of lazy essays, by Peter McArthur, that tell the story of an ordinary poor farmer trying to make a bare living from the land in the Province of Ontario. The author landed on a farm five years ago with no assets, he writes, but a love of nature, a sense of humor, and a deep-rooted conviction that because he had been brought up on a farm he could make a living for himself and family. There is one other asset, he omits to mention, that of a well-cultivated mind. During the experimental work with the farm he wrote these essays for the *Toronto Globe* and *Farmer's Advocate*. Every page of the book shows how much joy a farmer can get out of things, if he has imagination and can reap a harvest of dreams along with his wheat and apples. To those who desire to understand the soul of nature Mr. McArthur gives Whitman's advice: "I will never translate myself at all, only to him or her who privately stays with me in the open air."

Six thoughtful essays dealing with war, music, German and American culture, our nervous humanity, Japan and Japanese women, marriage and feminism form the content of Marian Cox's new book, "Ventures in Worlds."<sup>4</sup> It is an unusual volume that will interest women in particular, as the subjects are in the main considered from a woman's point of view. In her essay on music Mrs. Cox deplores our continual plague of music in America; and associates German lust for supremacy in part to the continual intoxication of the German ego with music. The paper on marriage, while it has an unfortunate title, is perhaps the best of these vigorous essays. It pricks the institution of marriage with the goad of self-realization, and begs society to awaken to the fact that the seeking of material considerations in marriage is slowly undermining the institution. She accuses man of violating in greater measure than woman the God-given law of natural selection. "A Cup of Tea in Japan," describes the "Cha-No-Yu," the picturesque Tea Ceremony of the Flowery Kingdom, and its relation to "harmony, courtesy, and beauty." Mrs. Cox is the author of a brilliant novel, "The Crowds and the Veiled Woman," and a book of striking short stories entitled "Spiritual Curiosities."

"The Ways of Woman,"<sup>5</sup> by Ida Tarbell, analyzes the activities and responsibilities of the average normal woman. The seven essays of this volume supplement the earlier book by Miss Tarbell, "The Business of Being a Woman."

<sup>3</sup> In Pastures Green. By Peter McArthur. E. P. Dutton. 364 pp. \$1.75.

<sup>4</sup> Ventures in Worlds. By Marian Cox. Kennerley. 223 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>5</sup> The Ways of Woman. By Ida Tarbell. Macmillan. 135 pp. \$1.

They are, in order of titles: "What Women Are Doing," "Give the Girl a Chance," "That's Her Business," "The Talkative Woman," "The Culture Chasers," "The Twenty-cent Dinner," and "A Young Girl's Thoughts."

It would be desirable if human conduct could be studied by anxious would-be reformers from the Freudian point of view which Edwin B. Holt, Assistant Professor of Psychology, presents in a brilliant exposition of the Freudian field of philosophy entitled "The Freudian Wish and Its Place in Ethics."<sup>1</sup> As in the case of Madame Montessori, who evolved her principles of education in her work with backward children, Freud has made his achievements almost entirely in the field of abnormality. Professor Holt shows that his principles, like the Montessori methods, have a wider application. The chief tenet of Freud's theory is the identification of virtue with knowledge. Life is the game of cross-fire between opposing wishes. To suppress wishes is to get at ethics from "below." To get at ethics "from above," instead of suppressing wishes, we analyze, scrutinize, and then discriminate, endeavoring to avoid the bad and discover the good. Thus we not only develop moral choice in the individual, but we bring about an exterior moral development in the objects of wishes or the field upon which desire plays. Mr. Holt dwells briefly upon Freud's widely discussed "Theory of Dreams."

Before the war very few people, aside from students and college professors, really knew anything definite about Belgian literature. Now nearly every schoolboy can tell you something about the writers of Belgium. Jethro Bithell, author of "Contemporary Belgian Poetry" and "Contemporary Flemish Poetry," publishes a new volume, "Contemporary Belgian Literature,"<sup>2</sup> that shows the development of Belgian letters to the

present day. A secondary object of this well-balanced study is to express practical sympathy for Belgian writers. Mr. Bithell says: "They will need readers after the war, and they deserve them." The book begins with the history of Belgium, the long record of warfare, of "invasion ventured and invasions repulsed," and of the long internal conflict in governmental affairs of Fleming and Walloon. The Belgian literature, which is Dutch, is the work of Flemings; that which is French is by the "purists," the Walloons. The first is the literature of images; the second that of ideas. The Flemings have "out-Zolaed Zola"; the Walloons have given free play to fancy, to the "scintillation of ideas." Lemonnier, Eekhoud, Verhaeren, Maeterlinck, Demolder, Flemish, Symbolist, and Parnassian poets, novelists, critics, essayists, dramatists, and scholars are commented upon extensively in this important piece of literary scholarship.

Mr. George Wharton James writes in the foreword of an exceedingly valuable and interesting volume, "Our American Wonderlands,"<sup>3</sup> that few Americans know their own land even in a cursory way, and that many of the trails of the United States are still fresh and newly trodden, while the wonders they offer are beyond those of the old world. This book-journey to American scenery begins in the Grand Canyon of Arizona and leads to the cliff dwellings, the "Painted Desert," to the Petrified Forests and the colorful deserts of Arizona; to the great natural bridges of Utah, the Garden of the Gods, Yellowstone Park, the glaciers of the National Park in Montana and on to the old Missions of California and to other matchless wonders of the western States. In the east, the trail takes us to Mammoth Cave, the Natural Bridge in Virginia, and to incomparable Niagara." The book is amply illustrated with reproductions from photographs.

## BIOGRAPHY

"ALCOTT MEMOIRS,"<sup>4</sup> a book that will meet Alcott's acceptance from all lovers of Louisa Alcott's books, has been compiled from papers and memoranda of the late Dr. Frederick L. H. Willis, the "Laurie" of "Little Women." It is a record of ten years of life with the Alcott family. Dr. Willis had planned to write his biography and relate therein his boyish experiences with the Alcott family, but he had barely begun the task when he died. His picture of the fifteen-year-old "Louisa May" is particularly vivid. "Joe," of "Little Women," was "tall, thin, and brown, and reminded one of a colt, for she never seemed to know what to do with her long limbs, which were very much in her way. She had a decided mouth, a comical nose, and sharp grey eyes which appeared to see everything, and were by turn

fierce, funny or thoughtful. . . . Round shoulders had Joe, big hands and feet, a flyaway look to her clothes, and the uncomfortable appearance of a girl who was rapidly shooting up into a woman and didn't like it." The material has been edited and arranged by Edith Willis Linn and Henri Bazin. Dr. Willis was a descendant of Nathaniel Parker Willis, of early New England literary fame.

"The Beloved Physician, Edward Livingston Trudeau,"<sup>5</sup> by Stephen Chalmers, gives a brief account of the heroic life of the man who did more than any other physician in this country to fight the Great White Plague. One chapter records Dr. Trudeau's acquaintance with Robert Louis Stevenson while he was under his care during the winter of 1887-88. The illustrations include cuts of Dr. Trudeau's first home at Saranac Lake, and the little red cottage built in 1884, which was the nucleus of the famous Cottage Sanitarium.

<sup>1</sup> The Freudian Wish and Its Place in Ethics. By E. B. Holt. Henry Holt. 212 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>2</sup> Contemporary Belgian Literature. By Jethro Bithell. Stokes. 383 pp. \$2.50.

<sup>3</sup> Our American Wonderlands. By George Wharton James. A. C. McClurg. 297 pp. \$2.

<sup>4</sup> Alcott Memoirs. By Frederick L. H. Willis. Badger. 108 pp. \$1.

<sup>5</sup> The Beloved Physician. By Stephen Chalmers. Houghton, Mifflin. 74 pp. \$1.

## TWO LITTLE-KNOWN COUNTRIES

ONE of the first requisites to our helpfulness to South American countries and a necessity to our understanding of them is exact knowledge of their history, geography, developed and undeveloped resources, industries, lives, customs, and general feeling of their peoples. A comprehensive book on Bolivia<sup>1</sup> published in "The South American Series," the work of Paul Walle, Commissioner of the French Ministry of Commerce, gives ample and exact knowledge about that little-known country. Bolivia covers an enormous territorial expanse. It has all climates; vegetables of temperate climates are grown there as well as products that love the tropic sun, such as quinquina, rubber, coca, coffee, cocoa and sugar cane. Tin, silver, antimony, pitchblende, bismuth, gold and copper mineral deposits are plentiful in the Andean regions. At present, along with other South American countries, Bolivia is entering upon an era of intellectual and economic transformation; railway construction is increasing, and the political condition manifests improvement. Monsieur Walle's advices to French commercial organizations in regard to Bolivia and all South American countries should be acted upon by the United States without delay. We should investi-

gate the field of commercial exchange made possible by the Panama maritime route, discover what these countries buy and sell, take note of our competitors, look into "climatic, physical, material and industrial conditions"; and realize that many of the "great battles of the future will be fought on the economic field," and that the victory will be "on the side of the best prepared." Included in the book are sixty-two illustrations and four maps.

One of the useful books offered with the object of enabling the reader to get a correct perspective on the geography and history of Europe is a study of the "Portugal of the Portuguese,"<sup>2</sup> by Aubrey F. G. Bell. He has written entertainingly of the characteristics of the inhabitants, their life in town and country, of their religion and literature, and briefly of the early period of Portugal's romantic history when Lisbon was the center of learning and of trade. Now Portugal's star has fallen; the land lies fallow; the people need education and the country needs western scientific methods of development. Mr. Bell writes that it is a land of wax needing a sculptor who will take into account its noble traditions.

## WHAT TWO WOMEN SAW OF THE WAR

"A JOURNAL of Impressions in Belgium"<sup>3</sup> consists of expanded notes made by May Sinclair during her experiences in 1914, with a Field Ambulance Corps in Belgium. They are offered to people who prefer to see things, as the author phrases it, "across a temperament." It is evident that Miss Sinclair tells the truth about her ordeal; nothing has been glossed over or made otherwise than it was. Out of ordinary raw human material, she saw saints and heroes evolve; out of slipshodness and inefficiency, order and efficiency. The biggest stories of the war she intimates will never be written; they happened on battlefields, or in dark trenches, or hospital wards where there were no journalists and correspondents. Taken as a human document, the book is vastly interesting, but as a plea for efficiency and preparedness, for knowing our business whether it is motoring, nursing, cooking or fighting, it is part of the "handwriting on the wall" that has stared America in the face since the beginning of the war. When real emergency comes we are mere rubbish cluttering the earth unless we have been trained to a job and have the tools of our trade at our disposal.

In April, 1915, Mrs. Mabel Dearnier, a highly talented Englishwoman, accompanied her husband

to the battle front in Serbia, to serve there as a hospital orderly. "Letters from a Field Hospital"<sup>4</sup> are the home letters she wrote during her brief period of service. They are published with a memoir by Stephen Gwynn, a tribute to a friendship of many years' duration. On July 10th Mrs. Dearnier died of enteric fever. A scrap of paper scrawled in pencil found in the mud-stained bag in her tent explains in a measure why she flung her life and bright genius into the vortex of misery in Serbia. There was a vacancy in the service; she filled the gap, giving all the attributes of her highly developed personality in the same spirit that Rupert Brooke gave, as a protest against the outrage of war. Her last message on the mud-stained scrap of paper is illuminating: "*To the Greeks foolishness, to the Jews a stumbling block.* Christianity can never teach common sense. It teaches the kingdom of heaven. It may permeate common sense with the tincture of its ideals, but the more common-sensible it becomes the less it is Christianity. It is the folly only possible to the supremely wise." Mrs. Dearnier was the author of novels and plays, a poet and a skilled artist. A collection of her poems will be published shortly. It may not seem amiss in connection with mention of this book, to record the fact that in the October following Mrs. Dearnier's death, her youngest son, Christopher Dearnier, died of his wounds at Suvla Bay.

<sup>1</sup> Bolivia. By Paul Walle. Scribners. 403 pp. \$3.

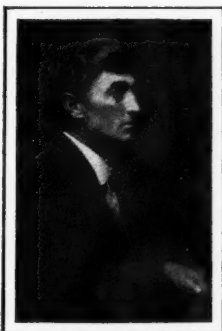
<sup>2</sup> Portugal of the Portuguese. By Aubrey F. G. Bell. Scribners. 268 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>3</sup> A Journal of Impressions in Belgium. By May Sinclair. Macmillan. 294 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>4</sup> Letters From a Field Hospital. By Mabel Dearnier. Macmillan. 182 pp. \$1.



## POETRY OF THE DAY



GEORGE STERLING

For felicitous phrasing, melody, and adherence to classical standards, the poetry of George Sterling is unexcelled among that of American poets. In the light of dawn in Yosemite, he sees the soul of man:

"... an eagle from its eyrie yearning,  
Goes up against the splendor and the burning—  
Goes up, and sees afar the world made free  
O liberty to come  
What trumpets shall announce thee on what  
glooms?  
What lips now dumb  
Shall sing thy ancient victories and dooms,  
And in what halls  
Shall man set up an altar to thy star?"

A sprightly book, "The Fringes of the Fleet,"<sup>1</sup> by Rudyard Kipling, offers six sketches in praise of the ships of the auxiliary fleet of the British Navy; trawlers, submarines, and patrolboats. They are rich with the vernacular of the "Service," and they give us vivid pictures of the new kind of scientific fighting man, the man with the impersonal mind, hard at work at his job. While Kipling robs the sea of much of its old romance, he still sees it as a "vast place divided between wisdom and chance, its highways patrolled by England's ships in order that civilization may go about its business on our waters." The only trouble with these stimulating sketches is that there is not enough of them. Six poems accompany the sketches. They are rather ordinary and do not enhance the value of the prose.

"Children of Fancy,"<sup>2</sup> poems by Ian B. Stoughton Holborn, may seem filled with invisible meanings, out of touch with the world of reality, for the verse of this exquisitely bound, blue and silver volume is the very spirit of fancy clothed in the myriad shapings of the poet's mind. The children are dream children, the rosy youth of myth and fable, or the waifs of modern loveliness that arrest attention for an instant, and pass on to the domain of the unattainable. Mr. Holborn's poetry is delicate, musical, rhapsodic; often shaped to enfold classical themes, always of proportioned comeliness, filled with a vague

haunting of undefinable beauty that can never be embraced in words. It is a book of poetry for poets; one can hardly say more. Mr. Holborn tells us in the preface that art is "seeking to suggest and even realize that which we would have be, that which with indomitable will we would force from fate's reluctant hand."

Helen Gray Cone publishes "A Chant of Love for England and Other Poems."<sup>3</sup> The title poem answers the German "Hymn of Hate" for England; the "other poems" include sonnets, songs, ballads and various beautiful verses, all of which is vastly more vigorous and firm in its hold on reality than most poetry written by women. The poems "Ivo of Chartres," "A Resurrection," and "Abraham Lincoln," establish their author in the front rank among those poets who have true spiritual vision, who see "the o'er brooding soul, purely ablaze, full-flooded with the light of God."

"To Your Dog and to My Dog" is a book for everyone who owns or who has ever owned a dog. It contains a collection of thirty-two poems by Kipling, Scott, Matthew Arnold, Newbolt, Lord Byron, and others, the tributes of masters to their dogs. Lincoln Newton Kinnicutt has collected the poems and written a graceful introduction for the volume.

A book of nature poems, "Songs of the Fields,"<sup>4</sup> by Francis Ledwidge, the Irish peasant-poet, will please all who love the country or who are familiar with the peaceful loveliness of the Irish countryside. The introduction is by Lord Dun-

FRANCIS LEDWIDGE, THE  
IRISH POET

sany, who discovered Ledwidge and helped him to make a collection of his poems. He compares the poet to "a mirror reflecting beautiful fields," or to a "still lake on a cloudless evening." Ledwidge, like the late Rupert Brooke, is a soldier. He is attached as Lance-Corporal to the Fifth Battalion of the Royal Inniskilling Fusiliers. He was born in the quaint, sleepy Irish village of Slane, in County Meath. As a boy he worked on a farm, later in a copper mine and in a grocery store in Dublin. It is certain that in this book of songs of fields, flowers, and birds, we have one of the new authentic voices of Irish poetry.

<sup>1</sup> The Fringes of the Fleet. By Rudyard Kipling. Doubleday, Page. 122 pp. 50 cents.

<sup>2</sup> Children of Fancy. By I. B. Stoughton Holborn. G. Arnold Shaw. 256 pp. \$2.

<sup>3</sup> A Chant of Love for England and Other Poems. By Helen Gray Cone. E. P. Dutton. 103 pp. \$1.

<sup>4</sup> Your Dog and My Dog. By L. N. Kinnicutt. Houghton, Mifflin. 148 pp. \$1.

<sup>5</sup> Songs of the Fields. By Francis Ledwidge. Duffield. 122 pp. \$1.25.

"Good Friday and Other Poems,"<sup>1</sup> by John Masefield, will please even those who do not generally read poetry. The genius that flared so triumphantly in "Salt Water Ballads," "The Widow in Bye Street," and "The Everlasting Mercy" shines now as a fixed star in the world of poetry. One goes to Masefield's poetry not alone for its beauty, but for moral comfort as well. He has seen life and he knows the hearts of men. The story of the drama "Good Friday" is that of the events preceding Pontius Pilate's decision to crucify Jesus. It is simple, poignant, and dignified. A dramatic monologue and a sonnet sequence complete the volume. The sonnets are a mosaic of the flashings of the poet's mind over the universe of thought, the whole shaping bit by bit slowly and cloudily, and emerging

as the vision of the "Beautiful." Here is one of the best of the sonnets:

"Flesh, I have knocked at many a dusty door,  
Gone down full many a windy midnight lane,  
Probed in old walls and felt along the floor,  
Pressed in blind hope the lighted window pane.  
But useless all, though sometimes when the moon  
Was full in heaven and the sea was full  
Along my body's alleys came a tune  
Played in the tavern by the Beautiful.  
Then for an instant I have felt at point  
To find and seize her, whosoe'er she be,  
Whether some saint whose beauty does anoint  
Those whom she loves, or but a part of me,  
Or something that the things not understood  
Make for their uses out of flesh and blood.

## THE MODERN DRAMA

FIFTY English, American, and foreign plays are presented in substance, by means of narrative and dialogue, in "The Masterpieces of Modern Drama,"<sup>2</sup> by John Alexander Pierce, with preface by Brander Matthews. The object of the work is to aid in the acquisition of the art of reading plays by means of "compromise between the dialogue of the play itself and the unbroken narrative of prose fiction." It is difficult to imagine a better work for people who desire in a brief space of time to grasp the content of modern drama. The volumes are illustrated with cuts of photographs of leading actors and actresses in the scenes of the various plays.

"John Ferguson,"<sup>3</sup> a play in four acts by St. John G. Ervine, author of plays and novels of Irish peasant life, introduces us to an Ulster farmer and his family, and tells the story of the misadventures brought about by the neglect of a relative in America to mail a letter which carries money to redeem the mortgage on the Ferguson farm. The machinery of the play creaks a little, but the dialogue is good and the underlying interest, the Irish peasant's love for his bit of land, is well brought out. Like most plays of its kind, it is a better acting than reading play. "Clutie John" and the mean-spirited "James Cæsar" are excellent characterizations.

**Another Book on the Theater.** By George Jean Nathan. B. W. Huebsch. 352 pp. \$1.50.

A characteristic volume of Mr. Nathan's spicy, witty comment on plays, actors, and matters theatrical. His views are rebellious, but entertaining and provocative of thought, whatever way you take them.

**Writing for Vaudeville.** By Brett Page, Home Correspondence School, Springfield. 639 pp. \$2.

A valuable work that contains instructions how to write and sell playlets, monologues, two-act burlesques, musical comedies, and all kinds of vaudeville acts. Nine complete examples are given of the various vaudeville forms by Richard Harding Davis, Aaron Hoffman, Edgar Allan Woolf, Taylor Granville, Louis Weslyn, Arthur Denvir, and James Madison.

**The Technique of Playwriting.** By Charlton Andrews. Home Correspondence School, Springfield.

A capital working guide to the amateur playwright.

**Writing and Selling a Play.** By Fanny Cannon. Henry Holt. 321 pp. \$1.50.

A book on playwriting written from the inside of the theater. The author has been an actress and has written and staged plays. The book gives advice as to play-construction, scenario, characters and dialogue. It is one of the best books of its kind on the market. A bibliography of reference books and plays is included in the contents.

**Plays by August Strindberg.** Fourth Series. Translated by Edwin Björkman. Scribners. 283 pp. \$1.50.

These plays are "The Bridal Crown," "The Spook Sonata," "The First Warning," and the historical play, "Gustavus Vasa." Mr. Björkman's interpretative preface gives an excellent background of knowledge about these plays and leads the reader into the history of Sweden and the country life of Sweden's most beautiful province, Dalecarlia.

**Gerhart Hauptmann, Dramatic Works.** Vol. VI. Huebsch. 419 pp. \$1.50.

This volume contains an introduction by Ludwig Lewisohn and three plays: "The Maidens of the Mount," "Griselda," and "Gabriel Schilling's Flight."

<sup>1</sup> Good Friday and Other Poems. By John Masefield. Macmillan.

<sup>2</sup> The Masterpieces of Modern Drama. By John A. Pierce. Doubleday, Page. 2 vols. 286-300 pp. \$2 per vol. Ill.

<sup>3</sup> John Ferguson. By St. John G. Ervine. Macmillan. 113 pp. \$1.

**"Prunella," or "Love in a Dutch Garden."** By Laurence Housman & Granville Barker. Little, Brown. 89 pp. \$1.

**The Vosey Inheritance.** By Granville Barker. Little, Brown. 131 pp. \$1.

**Waste.** By Granville Barker. Little, Brown. 133 pp. \$1.

**The Marrying of Anne Leete.** By Granville Barker. Little, Brown. 79 pp. \$1.

Four excellent modern plays that reveal some of the essentials of the new drama. Mr. Barker is a disciple of Ibsen, therefore his plays are distinguished by studies of human nature, by intellectual conversation and radical philosophy, rather than by the melodramatic action thought necessary to good plays by some playwrights.

**Tempted in All Points.** By Ralph H. Ferris. Badger. 157 pp. \$1.

**Dollars and Sense.** By Otto Kraemer and Lester W. Humphreys. 109 pp. \$1.

**Melmoth the Wanderer.** By Gustav Davidson and Joseph Koven. 179 pp. \$1.

Three excellent plays published in the American Dramatists Series. "Tempted in All Points" is a Biblical play that deals with the tragedy of

the betrayal of Jesus: "Dollars and Sense" is an amusing story of the career of a San Francisco banker. The joint authors are Portland (Oregon) attorneys. "Melmoth the Wanderer" portrays the triumph of brotherly love over the modern theories of individual development. The authors are prominent New York attorneys.

**The Steadfast Princess.** By Cornelia L. Meigs. Macmillan. 87 pp. 50 cents.

A Drama League Prize Play for children that sets forth the life of a Princess who overcomes many obstacles and remains true to her ideals and the people over whom she rules. A play of exceptional literary quality, and one that can be easily staged and adapted to amateur production in private houses.

**Plays by Anton Tchekoff.** Scribners. Translated by Julius West. 277 pp. \$1.50.

These plays show different phases of the life of the Russian people. "On the High Road" is a character study. "The Proposal," "The Bear," "The Wedding," and "The Anniversary" are humorous plays displaying great variety. "The Three Sisters" and "The Cherry Orchard" are tragedies of inactivity. They expound the belief that all human unhappiness is the result of some slovenliness of "thought and execution, education and ideal."

## THE NEWEST FICTION

A NEW book of yarns of the sea by Joseph Conrad is a literary event. "Within the Tides"<sup>1</sup> gives us four fine tales. The first, "The Planter of Malata," handles a favorite theme of Conrad's, spiritualized love that casts upon the shoulders of man or woman the mantle of the ideal. When life is weighed in the balance by love and found wanting; when one has given all—even the pride of manhood to be trampled upon, why, that is the end; one cannot go on living. Felicia Moorsom, the English beauty of the "topmost layer" of society with the soul of foam, pivots the tale dangerously near a satire on fashionable society. As for Renouard, the "Planter of Malata," scorned by Felicia: "His disappearance was in the main inexplicable. For to whom could it have occurred that a man would set out calmly to swim beyond the confines of life—with a strong stroke—his eyes fixed on a star."

"The Partner" is a story—roughly told by a seaman—of a sordid tragedy connected with a certain ledge of rocks in the English Channel; of a shipwreck that was planned, and of a murder that was not planned.

"The Inn of the Witches" is a variant of an old horror tale. A Castilian inn kept by two witch-like crones and their youthful gipsy apprentice in crime has a sumptuous bedchamber, the "Archbishop's Room," from which no traveler returns to relate what befell him there. This story will satisfy the most ardent admirers of Poe. Conrad has never drawn a more fascinating portrait of evil and youth combined than his pen portrait of the Gipsy girl at the inn,—an elemental, unmoral waif greedy for gewgaws.

"Because of the Dollars" is another story of Davidson, the South-Sea trader. In command of a light-draught boat built in Glasgow, the *Sissie*, he steams into forlorn little island-ports to pick up the trade dollars that have been called in by the government. A human derelict of the archipelago, "Laughing Anne," saves Davidson from robbery and death. This woman is as remarkable a character in her way as "Lena" in "Victory." Her "soul had gone blind," but in her way she was decent, loving enough to adore her child, loyal enough to lay down her life for a friend.

These stories are the finest of their kind offered to-day; Conrad is the supreme story-teller of this generation.

"Life and Gabriella"<sup>2</sup> is Ellen Glasgow's first novel in nearly three years. It is an appealing story of a young Southern girl who took the ugly facts of a difficult, harassed life and courageously moulded them to shapes of beauty. Gabriella was born into an impoverished, run-to-seed family in Virginia. Her father died when she was a child; her sister made an unfortunate marriage, and it is left to Gabriella to overcome the family idea that ladies should not work, and rescue her mother from the grip of poverty. When love came to Gabriella, she planned a gracious love-life, but her husband, a man of primitive character, elopes with another woman and leaves Gabriella with two small children to support. How she went into business in New York City, educated her children, winning the respect of everyone, and finally the supreme gift of love,

<sup>1</sup> Within the Tides. By Joseph Conrad. Doubleday, Page. 300 pp. \$1.35.

<sup>2</sup> Life and Gabriella. By Ellen Glasgow. Doubleday, Page. 529 pp. \$1.35.

completes this narrative of simple human facts. There is no straining after effect; the book tells the story of an artless, brave, sweet woman who was sturdy enough to conquer all difficulties and surmount all sorrows.

A remarkable book, "I Pose,"<sup>1</sup> by Stella Benson, is prefaced by the statement: "Sometimes I pose, but sometimes I pose as posing." It is a study in our conscious and unconscious attitudes

that disguise sincerity,—an ingenious, original, imaginative book full of metaphor and epigram. It is hardly a connected story, more like a literary moving picture with the script omitted, but amazingly clever and entertaining. The Gardener loves the Suffragette, but the Suffragette is not a real woman, only the shell of her particular pose. And her end is like the end of most posing. The bomb she has placed in a church explodes and makes an end of the little shell of militancy.

**Bottle Fillers.** By Edward Noble. Houghton, Mifflin. 414 pp. \$1.40.

A capital pictorial story of life at sea on a tramp steamer. The London *Globe* says: "It is real salt and spindrift; the sea as the sea is when a living is being wrung from it."

**The Accolade.** By Ethel Sedgewick. Small, Maynard. 442 pp. \$1.25.

A romantic, leisurely novel that presents a careful study of two kinds of egoism. The characters are those of another group of the Ingestre family who figured in previous novels "A Lady of Leisure" and "Duke Jones."

**Aunt Jane.** By Jennette Lee. Scribners. 329 pp. \$1.25.

An amusing story of an old-fashioned woman who managed a modern hospital on the principle

that all the patients, and even the haughty surgeons and doctors, were just "folks" and had to be treated accordingly. Aunt Jane was efficient; so admirably capable that even the head doctor fell in love with her.

**Rose Cottingham.** By Netta Syrett. Putnam's. 399 pp. \$1.35.

A novel that has all the glamour of youth and the sparkle of genius. A sympathetic study of the education and development of a young girl, and a picture of the social and literary activities of the late Victorian period.

**Plashers Mead.** By Compton Mackenzie. Harper. 374 pp. \$1.35.

A modern love story, a study in temperaments. The romance of a young artist and an elusive girl as "immaterial as the clouds."

## SOCIAL, ECONOMIC, AND POLITICAL DISCUSSIONS

**Anthracite; an Instance of Natural Resource Monopoly.** By Scott Nearing. Philadelphia: Winston. 251 pp. \$1.

This is a timely book, in view of the proposed readjustment of the wage scale in the anthracite region during the present spring. The author maintains that the consumer of anthracite pays a monopoly price based on the principle of "all that the traffic will bear." Every increase in the cost of producing anthracite is immediately transferred to the consumer. The miners in the meantime are receiving lower wages, measured in terms of subsistence, than they received in 1903, and, according to Dr. Nearing, they get no share of the heavy monopoly toll exacted from the consumer. Dr. Nearing states the facts of the anthracite industry to show that the private monopoly of any natural resource must work out to the exclusive benefit of the monopolists.

**The Authentic History of the United States Steel Corporation.** By Arundel Cotter. Moody Magazine and Book Company. 256 pp. \$2.

An excellent popular account of the formation and progress of the world's greatest industrial enterprise. Every part of the story is interesting, from the merging of the Carnegie interests and the purchase of Tennessee Coal & Iron in

the panic of 1907, to the corporation's relations with its employees, and its compensation and relief plans. The author states that a large part of the facts narrated in this book were obtained from the sworn testimony in the Government's suit for the dissolution of the corporation.

**English Railways.** By Edward Cleveland-Stevens. Dutton. 332 pp. \$2.25.

A detailed historical account of the consolidation of English railways up to the year 1900. It deals with "amalgamation as affecting railway corporations in general, and as viewed by Parliament and the public, and controlled by Parliament in the interests of the public." This work makes accessible to American students of railroad problems important facts of English railroad history.

**The Longshoremen.** By Charles B. Barnes. New York: Survey Associates, Inc. 287 pp. Ill.

One of the useful publications of the Russell Sage Foundation is a study of that long-neglected class of labor on our water fronts, the longshoremen. Prior to this investigation, no reliable official data regarding longshoremen in the United States had been collected. Neither the dock department of the Port of New York, nor the federal government had any reliable statistics. To meet this obvious need Mr. Barnes concentrated his investigation on the Port of New York, and by

<sup>1</sup> I Pose. By Stella Benson. Macmillan. 313 pp. 1.25.



interviews, cross-examinations, and observation, succeeded in getting together the important facts bearing on the peculiar conditions of this obscure field of labor. His report reveals many conditions that are fraught with peril.

**The House in Henry Street.** By Lillian D. Wald. Holt. \$2.

More than twenty years ago, in the lower "East Side" of New York City, a work was started by a group of young women graduates of a nurses' training school, which developed into what became known to social workers as the Nurses' Settlement. Miss Lillian D. Wald, the head of this enterprise from the beginning, has told its story in the pages of the *Atlantic Monthly*, and the whole record is now presented in book form. While the work, as described by Miss Wald, related itself primarily to the health conditions of the neighborhood, those who were responsible for it were led from one phase of social welfare to another, until the range of their interests has become as broad as that of any similar settlement. The workers naturally gave special attention to the needs of the immigrants from southeastern Europe who made up so large



TYPES, DRAWN BY ABRAHAM PHILLIPS FOR "THE HOUSE IN HENRY STREET"

a part of the congested population in which their life and work centered. The social customs that these immigrants brought with them and their adaptation to American institutions are among the topics discussed by Miss Wald. The etchings and drawings, by Mr. Abraham Phillips, very fittingly and vividly illustrate the text.

**Child Welfare Work in Pennsylvania.** By William H. Slingerland. New York: Department of Child-Helping; Russell Sage Foundation. 352 pp. Ill. \$2.

As stated by Dr. Hastings H. Hart, director of the Department of Child-Helping of the Russell Sage Foundation, in an introduction to this volume, Pennsylvania is far in advance of any other

State of the Union in the magnitude and generosity of her investments for dependent, delinquent, and defective children. In this study Dr. Slingerland records 210 institutions and 53 societies organized for child welfare work. The State has invested \$76,000,000 or ten dollars for every man, woman, and child in the commonwealth, in such institutions.

**A Child Welfare Symposium.** Edited by W. H. Slingerland. New York: Department of Child-Helping;—Sage Foundation. 138 pp. \$1.25.

Special papers on topics relating to child welfare, contributed by leading citizens and social workers and published as a supplement to the volume noticed above.

**American Municipal Progress.** By Charles Zueblin. Macmillan. 522 pp. Ill. \$2.

The volume is a revelation of what has been accomplished in the first fifteen years of the present century for the promotion of health, comfort, and cleanliness in American cities; the prevention of juvenile crime and delinquency; the improvement of the public schools; the establishment of parks and playgrounds, art museums, municipal theaters, social centers; the adoption of the commission form of government and the city manager; home rule for cities, and many other lines of progress. Mr. Zueblin truly says that those fifteen years represent a greater advance than the whole nineteenth century compassed.

**City Planning.** By Charles Mulford Robinson. Putnam. 344 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

This work, which is based on a wide range of experience in cities throughout the world, has to do especially with the planning of streets and blocks. Mr. Robinson's discussions and suggestions are invaluable to all city officials and commissions entrusted with the development of street systems.

**Community Civics.** By Jessie Field and Scott Nearing. Macmillan. 270 pp. Ill.

This book is addressed specifically to boys and girls in country communities and in towns that are centers of rural interests. The aim of the author is to make clear to youthful readers the relation between school and life.

**The National Issues of 1916.** By Hon. Charles N. Fowler. Harper. 435 pp. \$1.50.

In this volume the Hon. Charles N. Fowler, of New Jersey, former member of Congress, who was for eight years chairman of the Committee on Banking and Currency, discusses: "An American Banking System," "An American Merchant Marine," "The Tariff Commission," and the issue of national preparedness.

**Railway Monopoly and Rate Regulation.** By Robert James McFall, Ph.D. Columbia University; Longmans, Green. 223 pp. \$2.

This writer undertakes to show how regulation may be applied to railroads in such a way that the public may get from them the greatest possible service,—an ideal that was never reached under unregulated competition.

**Sound Investing.** By Paul Clay. Moody Magazine and Book Company. 371 pp. \$2.

A practical manual for the investor, directing the beginner how to proceed in the purchase of securities and suggesting, for the benefit of all who have to do with the placing of investments, certain common-sense methods of avoiding loss and increasing income.

**Efficient Living.** By Edward Earle Purinton. McBride. 353 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

Chapters on study, food, home, work, play, hygiene, money, and thought in relation to efficiency, with a concluding section devoted to solutions and suggestions for personal problems of efficiency.

**A History of the Family as a Social and Educational Institution.** By Willystine Goodsell. Macmillan. 588 pp. \$2.

In this volume the institution of the family is traced from patriarchal times to the present day. The historical survey forms a fitting background for the discussion of current theories of reform in the concluding chapter.

**Social Adaptation.** By Lucius Moody Bristol. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 356 pp. \$2.

Adaptation regarded as a theory of social progress is the subject of this monograph in which

the development of the doctrine is traced in the writings of sociologists, from Conte and Spencer, to Giddings, Ward, and Patten.

**Debaters' Manual.** Compiled by Edith M. Phelps. H. W. Wilson. 172 pp. \$1.

A compilation of materials useful to the student or individual wishing to know how to prepare a debate or how to organize a debating society. Excerpts have been made of articles from many sources dealing with questions of current interest.

**Selected Articles on Unemployment.** Compiled by Julia E. Johnson. H. W. Wilson. 242 pp. \$1.

Extracts from a large number of important magazine articles bearing on the question of unemployment and centering mainly around two propositions,—the establishment of public labor exchanges and the supplying of public work in normal channels are inadequate to absorb surplus labor.

**Prohibition of the Liquor Traffic.** Compiled by Lamar T. Beman. H. W. Wilson. 168 pp. \$1.

Arguments on both sides of the question of prohibition of the liquor traffic as embodied in magazine articles appearing within recent years.

## BOOKS RELATING TO THE WAR

**The Russian Campaign, April to August, and the Evacuation of Warsaw.** By Stanley Washburn. Scribner. 348 pp. Ill. \$2.

This book appears as the second volume of "Field Notes from the Russian Front," already noticed in these pages. Mr. Washburn, who has contributed some of his observations in the war zone to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, has been the correspondent with the Russian armies for the London Times since the beginning of the war. As an American who had already seen service as correspondent during the Russo-Japanese War, the Russian Government extended to Mr. Washburn special privileges. In the first part of the war he was the only English-speaking correspondent in Russia. The present volume, which follows the course of operations from April to August, 1915, gives special attention to the German gas attacks, the German drive in Galicia, and the evacuation of Warsaw.

**The Spirit of France.** By Owen Johnson. Little, Brown. 256 pp. Ill. \$1.35.

In this volume the brilliant young American novelist records his experiences and impressions in Paris, at Rheims, and Arras, and in visits to the trenches, where he was actually under fire. An interesting chapter of the book is the account of Mr. Johnson's interview with General Joffre, originally published in *Collier's*. Mr. Johnson succeeds in imparting something of his own vivid impression of the heroic and self-sacrificing spirit of the French people.

**The Note-Book of a Neutral.** By Joseph Patterson. Duffield. 95 pp. \$50.

Reflections on the war by an American journalist who has accompanied both German and French officers in Belgium.

**The World Decision.** By Robert Herrick. 253 pp. \$1.25.

Robert Herrick, the novelist and student of literature, spent the greater part of the year 1915 in France and Italy. His description and interpretation of those events in the war of which he was a witness have a literary quality that is absent from the great mass of the material relating to the war that has gone into print.

**The Heel of War.** By George B. McClellan. Dillingham. 177 pp. \$1.

Mr. McClellan, who holds the chair of Economic History at Princeton, is the son of General George B. McClellan of the Civil War. He spent half of last year traveling through France, Belgium, Holland, Germany, Switzerland, and Italy. His familiarity with these countries in times of peace, and his acquaintance with many of the statesmen who shape the policies of the powers, gave Mr. McClellan an unusual equipment for this study of Europe in war time. In reporting what he saw, Mr. McClellan avows a warm affection for the peoples of France, Germany and Italy, and asks to be judged as a strictly neutral observer of events.

**Justice in War Time.** By the Hon. Bertrand Russell. Chicago: Open Court Pub. Co. 243 pp. \$1.

The expressions of an English pacifist (grandson of the famous Lord John Russell), who believes that German success would be a misfortune, but that Great Britain is not above criticism as regards her foreign policy, and that after peace comes the nations should feel "that degree of mutual respect which will make co-operation possible."

**The Drama of Three Hundred and Sixty-five Days: Scenes in the Great War.** By Hall Caine. Lippincott. 176 pp. \$1.

The English novelist's review of the first year of the war, concluding on August 4, 1915.

**The Aftermath of Battle: With the Red Cross in France.** By Edward D. Toland. Macmillan. 175 pp. Ill. \$1.

The day's work of this young American in the French Hospital Service is possibly representative of the experiences of a considerable group of young men who went to France in the early days of the war and have remained there ever since, serving the Red Cross in whatever way was open to them. As Owen Wister says of Mr. Toland in the preface to this book, "He served the wounded Germans and Allies. He carried them upstairs and down, or in from the rain, he assisted at operations, he held basins, he gave ether, he built the kitchen fire, he pumped the water, he was chauffeur, forager, commissariat, he helped in what ways he could, as he was ordered, and also as his own intelligence prompted, in the not infrequent absence of orders."

**The Book of the Homeless.** Edited by Edith Wharton. Scribner. 155 pp. Ill. \$5.

This volume, which is sold for the benefit of the American Hotels for Refugees, and the Children of Flanders Rescue Committee, is made up of original articles in verse and prose, with illustrations produced from original paintings and drawings by distinguished artists. The introduction is furnished by Colonel Roosevelt, and among the contributors are: General Joffre, Maurice Maeterlinck, W. B. Yeats, Edmond Rostand, Emile Verhaeren, General Humbert, Eleonora Duse, Joseph Conrad, Edmund Gosse, Paul Bourget, Sarah Bernhardt, John Galsworthy, Thomas Hardy, Paul Hervieu, and Mrs. Humphry Ward. Besides Mrs. Wharton, the American contributors are: William Dean Howells, Edward S. Martin, Paul Elmer More, Josephine Preston Peabody, Agnes Repplier, Edith M. Thomas, and Barrett Wendell.

**Over the Front in an Aeroplane.** By Ralph Pulitzer. Harper. 159 pp. Ill. \$1.

The French military aviators have not made a practise of inviting civilians to accompany them on their flights, but an exception was made in behalf of Mr. Pulitzer, and he was permitted to fly in an army aeroplane from Paris to the fighting lines. His account of his unique experience is contained in this little book.

**The Truth About Louvain.** By René Chambray. Hodder & Stoughton. 95 pp. Ill. \$25.

An English translation of statements taken from eyewitnesses concerning what happened at Louvain in the summer and autumn of 1914.

## APPEALS FOR NATIONAL DEFENSE

**Fear God and Take Your Own Part.** By U. S. A. (resigned), supplies an introduction to Theodore Roosevelt. Doran. 414 pp. \$1.50.

This book embodies Colonel Roosevelt's views on national policy to which he has recently given utterance in various forms. Our readers will find editorial comment on the book in this month's "Progress of the World."

**The Invasion of America.** By Julius W. Muller. Dutton. 352 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

"Assuming that an enemy landed an army on the American coast, what could we actually do with our actual present resources, used to their fullest possible extent?" This book was written by Mr. Muller as an answer to this question. It deals with the various and complex elements of the problem, and presents in a vivid way the perils that our North Atlantic coast cities would be subjected to in the event of war with one of the European powers. General John A. Johnston,

**The A-B-C of National Defense.** By J. W. Muller. Dutton. 215 pp. Ill. \$1.

This little book, by the author of "The Invasion of America," undertakes to state in the briefest possible compass what the army and navy would have to do in war, why they would have to do it, and what they would need for successful performance.

**Empire and Armament.** By Jennings C. Wise. Putnam. 353 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

This work by the late Professor of Political Science and International Law in the Virginia Military Institute, traces the development of American imperialism, and deduces from our national history the argument for national defense.



# FINANCIAL NEWS

## I.—INVESTMENTS DURING A BOOM PERIOD

A CERTAIN munition-making concern had in sight foreign contracts valued at \$30,000,000. To complete these contracts it was necessary to build a new plant at an estimated cost of \$1,000,000. To finance the proposition it sold \$3,000,000 of notes, against which it placed the \$30,000,000 of contracts. Its plant is not yet completed, but already \$1,900,000 has been expended on it. Every item entering into construction cost and equipment has advanced from ten to several hundred per cent. Not only this, but the cost of raw materials used in this company's particular product has gone up so rapidly that from day to day it has been impossible to make firm offers owing to the fluctuating market for materials. Other corporations engaged in making powder, shells, acids, etc., have all had the same experience. One corporation was formed with \$10,000,000 capital to manufacture rifles and on tentative proposals went ahead and set up a plant. It had figured that a certain class of lathes used in boring would be furnished at \$1500 apiece, but when the order for them came to be placed the actual cost was \$5000 each.

These facts are cited to illustrate the current difficulty in analyzing many classes of securities which in normal times could be quite closely rated. As it is now no one seems to have a very definite idea what residuum of profit there will remain after the abnormal costs of materials have been absorbed and also the high scale of wages, in which is included a constantly shortening day's work. A great deal of the trouble with the speculative market recently has been due to the disappointing returns published of companies whose stocks were advanced to unheard of levels last year on exaggerated ideas of what was to be earned on these securities from war contracts.

### CONTROL OF SOURCES OF MATERIALS,—ITS IMPORTANCE

Recently a New York Stock Exchange house issued a letter to its clients in which it said:

It is becoming more and more evident, as the war progresses and increases the demand for

and prices of certain products, that those who produce these products will not reap the greatest benefit unless they also control the sources of materials and supplies that enter into these products. When the prices of commodities are rising rapidly for a considerable period of time, the first benefits go to the manufacturers or producers of those commodities while the later and greater benefits go to those who own the opportunities to production, viz., the mines, forests and land.

It was then pointed out how the profits on shells and cartridges had been curtailed by the high prices of steel, copper, zinc, tungsten, and quicksilver; those of automobile manufacturers by the rise in rubber and leather as well as in steel and in copper and of powder manufacturers by the heavy tribute exacted from producers of alcohol, sulphuric acid, picric acid and ethyl. Even the leather manufacturers, who have had their market abroad enormously expanded, are at the mercy of the makers of dyes, acids, tallows, etc. There have been daily advances in the prices of crude oil and gasoline in the past three months, until the present figure on the latter has reached a level that threatens to reduce automobile production.

Continuing the letter above quoted said:

Those who have the final word and who bag the biggest profits are those who own the ore, coal and oil lands; the lumber and rubber forests; the copper, zinc, lead and quicksilver mines; the sugar lands; and the grain, cotton and grazing land. Nor should we overlook the owners of building and water power sites who are always on hand when prosperity is with us.

### A TIME WHEN SELLER DICTATES TO BUYER

The same thought has been expressed in another way and to this effect:

Never before in the history of the world, whether it be in lumber, copper, steel products, sugar, in fact, almost every commodity, has the buyer been at the mercy of the seller in so great a degree as that at present. The buyer must produce the money and the credit arrangement is made at the dictation of the seller. This is a condition that has never existed heretofore; and the condition is reflected in no one section, but all over the country. It means increased dividends for stockholders, increased working capital and larger surplus accounts.

The largest industrial transaction carried out last month was the purchase by the



newly formed Midvale Steel & Ordnance Manufacturing Company of the Cambria Steel Company; and the underlying reason for this was the need which the purchaser had of the large ore deposits of the latter in order to insure low producing costs and immunity from pressure or discrimination by competitors controlling other valuable iron-ore deposits. One conspicuous feature of the war-munition business in its infancy period in the United States has been the lack of coördination between the different industries controlling products of which some finished article is the composite. Herein lies the explanation of so much unsatisfactory result when the balance sheets of the year were made up.

#### "RAW-PRODUCT" SECURITIES

Most of the securities of companies dealing in raw products are closely held and represent moderate capitalizations with enormous earning power at the present time. The stock of one chemical concern, which few not identified with the trade had heard of until this year, is quoted at \$4400 a share. Many others are held at from \$300 to \$500 and several of them above \$1000 a share. On the other hand, the shares of the most profitable of the powder companies employing chemical products in the manufacture of their specialty are held at about \$350 a share and some less profitable ones much below \$100 a share. One of these stocks recently declined from about \$175 a share to \$60 a share for reasons described in the early paragraphs of this article.

It is not within the range of the average investor to secure what may be classified as the "raw-product" securities and if it were it is doubtful if such a policy is to be recommended. Certainly not for permanent investment, for just as the war has bid up valuations, so the end of the war will also bring its readjustments in the other direction. There is another reason and that is the difficulty in obtaining information regarding these more or less closed corporations. Few of them ever make reports to stockholders on which an accurate idea of earnings can be gauged. One has to depend on one's general conviction about the state of an industry and some knowledge of the probable profits given certain conditions and faith in the management, and that is all.

It is possible, however, to take some advantage of the current situation and exchange securities of laggard industries or transportation companies for those which

have the immediate call on the nation's prosperity. Great care should, however, be taken in the selection of such investments, with preference given to those obligations which are well fortified even in ordinary times. A year ago there was a great collapse in the securities of timber land and lumber companies, and this wreckage is still strewn over the investment field. To-day lumber is in better demand than in many years and prices are high. Consequently production will be stimulated, the market probably over-supplied again, with the resultant fall in prices. There is also at present speculation in rubber lands and in rubber securities based on legitimate demands and raw products are not exorbitantly high. One of the most remarkable developments has to do with cane sugar lands. Recently a New York syndicate of bankers has bought great tracts in Cuba and enriched the island with \$50,000,000 gold. Copper mines that had ceased to produce because production was not profitable at the old quotations of 15 to 18 cents for metal are starting up and making money with metal between 25 cents and 30 cents.

#### POWER-COMPANY MORTGAGES DESIRABLE

These are all evanescent conditions and should not compel the careful investor to place funds required for income in securities of currently exploited companies. On the other hand, mortgages on the lands which produce these commodities, good in all times, ought to be superfine investments now, and the mortgages of power companies which with a normal load can earn fixed charges two or three times over are certainly of greater value than ever with the present maximum load, due to the opening of so many mines and the 100 per cent. of capacity rate at which so many industries are being driven to supply domestic and foreign requirements. The labor situation among industries, exclusive of the hard and soft coal miners, is on a more stable basis than that of the railroads, which are facing a great strike this spring unless they meet the demands of their employees. There is not so much foreign liquidation to injure the market for industrials and public-utility securities as there is constantly overhanging that for railroad securities. The former, then, are preferable at the moment, but should be selected with great care and always with the knowledge of what they earn normally and not in the excitement and false perspective of what they are earning in a period of somewhat accidental prosperity.

## II.—INVESTORS' QUERIES AND ANSWERS

### No. 707. MUNICIPAL VERSUS GOVERNMENT BONDS

I am a trained nurse, and have a small amount of savings I wish to invest safely. What do you think about Government bonds? How much interest would they yield? I do not know a thing about bonds or investments and for that reason would like to have you tell me just what you would do in my circumstances.

From the brief outline which you give of your circumstances, we believe if we were in your place we should place the little savings fund in a carefully selected municipal bond. We quite appreciate why, with your lack of experience in such matters, your thoughts should have turned to Government bonds, but that kind of investment, we are sure, will scarcely appeal to you when you stop to consider that the net income it would yield is way below 4 per cent. An investment in municipal bonds would give you a degree of safety high enough for all practical purposes and a considerably better yield of income.

In going into this kind of investment, it might be suggested that you select a bond that meets the requirements of the Government's Postal Savings System. There are a good many such issues that come in denominations small enough to meet the requirements of any investor. A good way for you to take the matter up for definite action would be to consult personally with a firm of responsible and experienced specialists in municipal securities.

### No. 708. WHAT BORROWERS HAVE TO PAY ON FARM LOANS

I should like a question answered through the Investment Bureau in regard to farm mortgages. It is this: How much interest do borrowers have to pay on mortgages that bear  $5\frac{1}{2}$  and 6 per cent?

It varies as between the different States, and even as between different localities in a given State. For example, we quote below a few figures taken from a report on an investigation made by the Office of Markets and Rural Organization of the United States Department of Agriculture. The figures are based on data obtained in 1915, but representing normal conditions such as prevailed before the outbreak of the European war.

State	Average Int. Rate	Average Annual Com.	Interest Plus Com.
Maine .....	6.1	0.1	6.2
Connecticut ...	5.7	Less than 0.1	5.7
New York ....	5.5	0.1	5.6
Ohio .....	5.9	0.2	6.1
Illinois .....	5.7	0.3	6.0
Wisconsin .....	5.7	0.1	5.8
Iowa .....	5.6	0.3	5.9
Missouri .....	6.2	0.6	6.8
Kansas .....	6.1	0.8	6.9
Georgia .....	7.6	1.1	8.7
Florida .....	9.0	0.6	9.6
Oklahoma .....	6.6	1.8	8.4
Texas .....	8.4	0.6	9.0
Wyoming .....	9.2	0.8	10.0
Utah .....	8.6	0.4	9.0
Washington ...	7.9	0.8	8.7
California ....	7.4	0.2	7.6

### No. 709. THE FUTURE OF NEW HAVEN

Will you kindly advise what you think of New York, New Haven & Hartford stock, not only as a semi-speculative stock, but to hold for future dividends? It would seem as though the railroads of the country had passed through the hardest of their difficulties; and with the business outlook more promising I should think that these stocks ought to be increasing in value, although they might not be paying regular dividends.

We are inclined to agree with you that in many respects the railroads of the country have passed through the most trying of their difficulties, but we think there are a number of grave problems yet remaining to be solved before the stability of railroad investments as a class can be established as we should all like to see it established.

The New Haven's difficulties were, of course, quite largely of the making of a former improvident management, rather than the making of general conditions in the road's territory. The present management has apparently succeeded in solving in a satisfactory way a number of the problems which it inherited, but it still has several difficult ones with which to grapple. The future cannot be seen very clearly at the present time, but we are of the opinion that no dividends can be expected on the stock for a few years yet. We think that in time a very large part, at least, of the lost investment prestige of New Haven securities can be restored, but we should not care to venture a forecast as to how soon that may be.

### No. 710. LOOK FOR ESTABLISHED EARNING POWER

I am aggrieved at the outcome of an investment which I made a few years ago in Western Pacific first mortgage 5 per cent. bonds, which were represented to me at the time by the offering bankers as "one of the best purchases in the market to-day, for which we predict a steady advance in price." You are probably familiar with the experience through which the holders of these bonds are passing. Personally, I do not wish to repeat it, and I should like to have you indicate what precaution I can take.

We know of but one sure precaution against a repetition of the kind of experience you are having with the Western Pacific 5's; namely, to make sure hereafter that the bonds you buy are the *obligations of companies with established earning power*. At the time the Western Pacific bonds were marketed, they were to all intents and purposes construction bonds. Interest was being then met, and continued for a long time to be met, out of "construction account." And after this account was closed, interest was paid largely out of the net earnings of the Denver & Rio Grande, which was obligated on the Western Pacific's 5's by a guarantee, since repudiated. There is always a hazard in buying bonds in such circumstances, whether or not interest or principal, or both, are protected by a guarantee.

### No. 711. STREET-IMPROVEMENT BONDS

I am taking advantage of the offer of your services for information regarding Western securities, especially 7 per cent. street-improvement bonds. Are these securities issued by the cities and thus their obligations?

The class of bonds you have particular reference to, do not come within the category of direct municipal obligations. They are, instead, the personal obligations of the owners of the property abutting the improvements for which the bonds are issued. They are safeguarded in the final analysis by liens coming ahead of everything except general taxes on specific parcels of property within these limited districts, and in this sense the bonds partake very much of the nature of real-estate mortgages.

Taken as a whole, these bonds have a very good record for safety. We have heard of an occasional instance here and there where delay has occurred in the payment of interest and maturing instalment of principal.